DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 152 461 RC 010 432

AUTHOR	Levin, Lester I., Ed.
TITLE	Educating Social Workers for Practice in Rural Settings: Perspectives and Programs. A Task Force Report.
INSTITUTION	Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Ga.
SPONS AGENCY	Social and Rehabilitation Service (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jul 74
GRANT	DHEW-20-P20014/4
NOTE	101p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$6.01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Delivery Systems; Educational Objectives; Educational Philosophy; *Educational Programs; Field Experience Programs; Guidelines; *Higher Education; Needs Assessment; *Program Descriptions; Program Development; Reference Materials; *Rural Areas; *Social Services; *Social Workers; Southern States; Symposia

ABSTRACT

Problems unique to social workers in rural areas prompted the Southern Regional Education Board to set up a task force to focus on an educational program specifically for rural social work practitioners. The task force report (encompassing differences in rural farm, rural nonfarm, and rural industrial areas) includes educational objectives, special competency areas, curriculum models, and teaching resources necessary to provide education for social workers in the rural South. Summaries of two meetings on rural social work held in New Orleans, La., and Atlanta, Ga., in 1971 outline differences in urban and rural social work as well as curriculum content needed for rural practice. Statements developed on educational assumptions and objectives and a guideline for doing a rural profile (analysis of services, geography, size, and people) are presented. Two papers describe rural social work programs at West Virginia University and University of Tennessee at Martin, and another covers the philosophy of an Appalachian Studies Program, along with its syllabus and reading lists. Remaining papers deal with rural field experience, education for rural program development, social service needs and delivery, and a proposed course in rural human services, including bibliography. There is a three-page list of additional reference material and resources on rural topics. (NS)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED152461

RC

EDUCATING SOCIAL WORKERS FOR PRACTICE IN RURAL SETTINGS: PERSPECTIVES AND PROGRAMS

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

B Schultz

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

RC010432

SOUTHERN REGIONAL EDUCATION BOARD

EDUCATING SOCIAL WORKERS FOR PRACTICE IN RURAL SETTINGS:

PERSPECTIVES AND PROGRAMS

A Task Force Report

Edited by:
Lester I. Levin

July 1974

FACULTY DEVELOPMENT FOR UNDERGRADUATE
SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION
Southern Regional Education Board
Atlanta, Georgia

Supported by

SOCIAL AND REHABILITATION SERVICE
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
Grant Number 20-P20014/4

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Publication of this Task Force Report would not have been possible without the encouragement and continuous assistance of a number of individuals. First on the list is Ms. Betty Baer, Chairwoman, Undergraduate Program, School of Social Work, University of West Virginia. Professor Baer began working with me on this project at its inception and has given it countless hours of time and energy as Chairwoman of the Task Force. Her expertise and convictions about rural people and rural communities are reflected throughout the publication.

Members of the Task Force contributed both written materials and their experience in operationalizing the conceptual material developed by the Task Force viz: Educational Assumptions and Objectives. This group included:

Mr. Carl Gusler
Clinch Valley College
Box 1053
Social Welfare Department
Wise, Virginia

Mr. Ruffer Johnson
Tuskegee Institute
Tuskegee Institute, Alabama

Ms. Pat Johnson
Rt. 1
Bacoton, Georgia

Ms. Patricia Keith
Family Services
West Virginia University
Morgantown, West Virginia

Mrs. Pamela Manley
Director of Social Work
Division of Social Sciences
Concord College
Athens, West Virginia

Mrs. Mary McCetrick
University of Arkansas
Department of Social Welfare
Fayetteville, Arkansas

Mrs. Ora Stanton
P.O. Box 481
Jackson State College
Hazlehurst, Mississippi

Ms. Earline Strickland
Chairwoman, Home Economics
Mississippi Vocational College
Itta Bena, Mississippi

Dr. Stanley Williams
Department of Sociology
University of Tennessee
Martin, Tennessee

Dr. Leon Ginsberg, Dean of the School of Social Work, University of West Virginia, who is nationally recognized for his research and writing on social work in rural areas, served ably as a consultant and authored one of the papers in this publication. Dr. Helen Lewis, Director of the Undergraduate Social Welfare Program at Clinch Valley College, Wise Virginia, a recognized authority on Appalachia, also provided consultation and materials for publication.

Finally, we want to acknowledge Edward Buxton, Joanne Mermelstein, Nellie Reid, Everett Saunders, Paul Sundet and Linda Stiles for permission to use their material in this publication.

Individuals interested in developing and promoting social service in rural areas would find any of the above named individuals helpful as resource persons or consultants.

Lester I. Levin

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction 1

Summary of the Symposium on Rural Social Work
New Orleans, Louisiana, October 30, 1971 3

Summary of Rural Social Work Practice Meeting
Atlanta, Georgia, December 16-18, 1971 10

Statement of Educational Assumptions
June 1972 18

Statement on Educational Objectives
June 1972 22

Guidelines for a Rural Profile 24

Observations on Preparing Students for the Practice of Social Work in Rural Communities
Leon H. Ginsberg 26

Social Work Education for Rural Program Development
Joanne Mermelstein and Paul Sundet 36

Delivering Social Services in Rural Areas
Edward B. Buxton 52

The Philosophy and Intent of the Rural Social Services Education Program at the University of Tennessee at Martin
Dr. Stanley B. Williams 64

Rural Social Services Needs in Northwest Tennessee
Everette N. Sanders 68

Field Experience in Rural Areas
Nellie N. Reid 76

Appalachian Studies Programs
Helen Matthews Lewis 82

A Proposed Course In Rural Human Services
Linda Stiles 90

Additional Reference Materials and Resources on Rural Subjects 102

Introduction

The Social Worker of today, often educated and oriented to the urban way of life, may feel like a stranger entering a foreign country when he begins to practice in rural areas of the South or other parts of the nation.

The independent attitudes and life-style of the rural population offer him little assistance in developing and capitalizing on group activities to solve problems. The entering professional is seen primarily as the man who hands out money rather than as a resource to be called on in the community to help deal with long-range solutions to problems. Participation in such planning is again complicated by a scattered population, lack of transportation, population diversity, lack of access to and knowledge of technical assistance and resources on the part of rural citizenry.

All of these problems, unique to the social worker in the rural area who is usually a baccalaureate level professional, prompted the Southern Regional Education Boards's project in Social Welfare Faculty Development to examine various aspects of an educational program for rural social work practitioners. A special task force working in this area developed the educational objectives, special competency areas, curriculum models and teaching resources necessary to provide education for the social worker who practices in the rural South. Lester I. Levin, Faculty Development Project Director provided staff direction to the task force.

Preliminary findings were presented and discussed at an SREB Institute for Practice in Rural and Appalachian Settings held in Tennessee in late March, 1972. Participants at the Institute also considered the economic, political, social and other institutions and conditions which have shaped the lives of people in rural areas.

There are some eleven million people living below the poverty level in the South and are eligible for public assistance. Some six million of these could receive food stamps to supplement their diets but don't take advantage of them. Why? This is one question faced by the social workers going into a rural poverty area.

Rural communities have problems common to all communities -- mental retardation, physical and emotional disabilities, alcoholism, drug abuse and delinquency-- but these problems must be seen within the context of unique social, economic and political systems. There are also problems which tend to be more like problems of underdeveloped countries. Services needed are those related to sustain life - food, shelter, health, transportation - rather than those concerned with improving the quality of an already adequate, if not good, life.

Communication becomes a major problem in the rural areas where many people depend on the telephone in a local general store for all incoming calls, but they may get to the store only once or twice a week.

Ethnic and cultural differences are a characteristic of many rural communities. Such differences must be recognized and respected in order for the professional to be sensitive to the desires of the communities and to make himself the kind of person who can work effectively with the community.

Because fewer formal social welfare agencies are available to deal with specific problems, and because there are few social workers with advanced degrees in rural communities, there is a special need for trained workers who can help define problems and develop solutions.

The social welfare delivery system of rural areas may be a less formal system with an informal network and resources which are not commonly a part of the traditional welfare system. These systems need to be studied so that the "positives" are recognized and strengthened. Programs based on urban experience may be disfunctional in rural areas. People in such areas tend to be resistant, and suspicious of change as it would be brought about in the urban situation.

Many baccalaureate level social workers will be working in rural areas during the next few years. These communities vary greatly--rural non-farming, rural farming, rural industrial, etc. They are different in stylе, customs, economic situation, population density, geographic location and topography. Rural areas, just as urban and suburban areas, change in response to population mobility, technology, and other factors.

All of these must be dealt with by the new social worker going into rural social work. They will demand a core of knowledge which includes understanding of human behavior, skills in analysis and problem solving, community development and in basic practice skills. Substantive knowledge, unique as it pertains to rural communities, exits too, and this must be made available to a new generation going into the field of human service.

Lester I. Levin, ACSW
Joel E. Turner

SUMMARY OF THE SYMPOSIUM ON RURAL SOCIAL WORK

HELD IN NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA, HOTEL SHERATON CHARLES,

October 30, 1971

Betty L. Baer, SREB Consultant, served as leader for the Symposium on Rural Social Work Practice. She stated that the purpose of the one-day Symposium was "brainstorming," trying to identify issues and areas of concern related to preparation for social work practice in rural areas.

Dr. Leon H. Ginsberg, dean of the School of Social Work at West Virginia University, served as the principal discussant for the Symposium. Dr. Ginsberg emphasized that he drew heavily from the content of three papers as well as an article on social work in rural areas, which appears in the 1971 edition of the Encyclopedia of Social Work. He discussed the following areas:

1. Social Work practice in rural areas as an issue of concern for the profession was neglected until very recently. Up until the time Dr. Ginsberg made his presentation, "Education for Social Work in Rural Settings," at the CSWE Annual Program Meeting in January, 1969, the issue had received scant attention in social work literature. That presentation indicated a high degree of interest in the area, and since that time interest and concern have been growing.

2. The area of concern is more properly "social work practice in rural areas," rather than "rural social work practice." The latter implies a unique speciality, whereas practice in rural areas is simply good social work practice with the same generic foundation that social work has for practice in any area.

3. There is a need for preparation for practice in rural areas. Despite the fact that rural America has been largely neglected by social work, vast rural areas do exist throughout the U.S. and we should, as educators, be preparing young people to work in them and to work effectively.

4. Preparation for effective practice in rural areas means that we become aware of the special characteristics of rural areas and the profound changes that have occurred over the years in rural communities.

5. Rural communities have been neglected in the past and continue to be neglected now. For example, most poverty, most bad housing (one-third of rural housing is substandard) occurs in rural areas. One-third of rural communities with a population over 1,000 have no sewage system at all. These are but a few of the facts that illustrate the appalling conditions in many rural areas. Without question, national policy fostered the neglect and continue to do so.

6. Some of the kinds of changes which have profoundly affected rural communities are (a) Automation. It is not generally realized that people have been displaced from their jobs in rural areas to a far greater extent than has occurred in urban areas. One has only to look at the cotton and coal industries, which have become highly mechanized, to see the results of automation in rural areas. (b) National policy. Agricultural policy, for example, has rewarded people for not growing crops. In so doing, such policy has hastened the demise of small farmers. (c) War. War and production needs hastened the process of people moving to the cities and once

---

* "Education for Social Work in Rural Settings," presented at the CSWE Annual Program Meeting in Cleveland, January, 1969, Social Work Education Reporter, September 1969. "Social Problems in Rural America," National Conference Conference on Social Welfare 1969, 1969 Conference Papers.

people were there and saw the cities, they chose not to return to the rural areas from which they migrated. (d) The media, especially television, brought the whole of America into the homes of rural Americans with the result that rural people saw how other Americans lived. (e) The inter-state highway system, by opening up rural areas and providing for easy access, has become a major social change force.

Because of the changes that have been going on throughout the United States (changes which have had a very great effect on rural communities) and the neglect of rural communties on the national policy level, people have left rural communities. People left because life in rural communities was no longer pleasant. That is, life in such communities was no longer appealing and attractive and young people, particularly, left as quickly as they could.

(It was noted by some of the Symposium participants that there are presently some efforts under way to intervene in the neglect. For example, the United States Department of Agriculture has fostered rural development councils in all rural communities which are supposed to coordinate the activities of all programs as well as stimulate further developments. However, it was generally agreed that such efforts still remain piecemeal and have a long way to go, particularly when federal policy is still all too frequently detrimental to rural areas.)

7. Rural communities have "special characteristics" which students preparing for practice need to understand. For example, religion exerts greater influence on the lives of rural residents than it does on the lives of urban dwellers. (Dr. Ginsberg emphasized that he was talking about "religion," and that, in this context, "religion was not to be confused with morality.") The church has often been a community meeting place and, as such, has been a significant social institution for rural residents. Students need to know this and they need to know this and they need to understand the influence of religion in rural areas, if they are to be at all effective.

Reactions to Dr. Ginsberg

In response to this aspect of Dr. Ginsberg's presentation a number of questions and issues were raised. For example, the minister frequently carries a community leadership role in rural areas. After the minister has been identified as a "leader," what do we do about it; that is, what are the implications for practice? How does the social worker deal with the "conservative, racist" minister? Clearly, he has to be dealt with, but how? There may be differences in the ways different rural communities view the minister, e.g. the rural black community may view its minister in a different way than does the white rural community. What are these differences? There may be a number of people who arent affiliated with anything, so can we assume that the minister is critical in the lives of all residents?)

A second characteristic of rural communities emphasized by Dr. Ginsberg was that communication tends to be oral; that is, the "real" news travels by word-of-mouth from one person to the other. All too frequently, the local media do not carry the "big" news in the community. There are many examples of news "blackouts" where the local news media do not print the story at all. Local media re frequently owned by a single person and, consequently, news determined to be unfavorable is simply not reported. Students need to understand this and they need to understand that primary, face-to-face relationships still do exist in

rural communities.

8. If social work education programs are to prepare young people for practice in rural areas, then such programs must focus on helping students learn how to relate themselves to rural communities. This usually requires patience, a very real sensitivity, and a capacity to be even somewhat sophisticated about such things as power structure.

(On this last point, there was general recognition on the part of the Symposium participants that many of our students have quite simplistic ideas about power structure. Persons who make decisions in rural communities may be quite different from the students' stereotyped ideas.)

Ruffer Johnson - Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, raised the following questions in his presentation:

1. If it is important that we prepare students for social work practice in rural areas and for them to have deep understanding of people living in rural communities, then how do we go about doing this? What are the possibilities in linking up with the indigenous leadership in rural areas? Should we be bringing such persons into the classroom to contribute to the teaching effort?

2. How do we go about helping students understand how the "system" in rural areas maintains the problems of rural areas? The first problem is that of identifying such systems, but once such systems are identified, how do we intervene and how do we help our students understand how to go about intervening and changing, rather than simply helping to maintain these systems?

3. Do we not also, educationally, need to begin to look at the "Plantation" system as a system and recognize the evils of this system? Do we recognize that it still exists and how do we, as educators, begin to help students deal with this?

4. What about the whole employment issue in rural areas? Don't social workers who are going to be prepared for rural practice need to know a great deal about this situation--that as long as lack of employment and underemployment continues to exist, life in rural communities will be difficult? Should social workers be getting involved with state and local agencies in regard to the whole employment situation?

Carl Gusler, Clinch Valley College social work program, raised the following kinds of issues in his reaction comments:

1. Are we really focusing teaching on preparation for rural practice, or are we preparing for practice "anywhere?"

2. Don't students need to understand that there may be much less "maneuverability" in rural communities because news travels very fast and "messing up" is quickly noted?

3. Don't we, as educators, need to take into account the impact of all the surveys, studies, "educational gimmicks," and other devices on rural communities? Should we be assuming some responsibility for these, particularly where we know that the affect on the community may be quite negative?

4. Do we not need to become far more creative about the range of teaching personnel that can be utilized, particularly when we recognize that many of the undergraduate programs in social work are located in small colleges where there may be but one full-time member of the social work faculty?

5. Don't we have to recognize and deal with the fact that some social welfare programs are used by colleges as their "community service, public relations" program? In these settings, there may be very little commitment to social work as such; the program is seen as a way to relate to the community because the college needs to "report" its community activity every so often.

6. How does the student develop a professional identity when and if all placements are in non-social work settings? Where and how do students have access to professional role models, if indeed, this is critical?

Reactions to Mr. Gusler's Remarks

1. What are we talking about when we say a "professional social worker?" What are the major characteristics of the professional social worker that we want the baccalaureate worker to model? Elaine Baker asked the question, "How can we talk about modeling when we (professional social workers) are not sure who we are? 'What does it mean to be a helper and what does it mean to help someone?" Does this area not have to be carefully thought through as we go about preparing young people for social work practice in rural areas, particularly if we are aware that some of the "Professionals" have not been viewed as helpful to those who need social work services?

2. Dr. Ginsberg pointed out that, in his opinion, the social worker in rural areas has to be a generalist. He h to be able to do a variety of tasks and carry a wide range of roles, depending upon what the problem might be, because resources are usually very limited. "The rural area practitioner cannot get by with the specialist cop-out of urban areas."

3. In some way, our curriculum must prepare the student to know how to connect and relate with the community, how to sense customs and mores, and to learn what people expect of the social worker. He has to be in tune with and sensitive to what is in the community, and he also has to know what he does to get into the community and gain acceptance from the community.

4. How do we equip the student to deal with the isolation which is frequently the lot of the practitioner in rural areas? There may not be other professionals to whom the worker can turn for support, consultation, etc. How do we help the student to deal with this kind of loneliness? Dr. Ginsberg pointed out that in rural communities, one never "goes home"; there is not the anonymity of the urban area. Pam Manley asked, "If we accept that there is this kind of isolation and loneliness, does this mean that the social worker in the rural area is not part of the community, but rather is apart from it?"

Dr. Ginsberg began the afternoon session with some comments directed toward what he considers to be essential characteristics of the rural practitioner.

1. The rural practitioner has to be, or learn to be, responsible for his own practice because continuing education programs, contact with other professionals social workers, etc, are not always readily accessible and available. The social worker, in order to keep abreast of changes and developments in the field, has to read and seek out ideas and information whereever they may be available to him. Such a practitioner also has to be fairly secure; he has to be able to practice with no supervisor in the usual sense. Dr. Ginsberg emphasized that there are often values in this

and that social work practice in rural areas can be challenging and exciting for some because it permits greater freedom and autonomy.

2. The practitioner in rural areas has to have a capacity to deal with "ambiguity." Rural areas tend to be less structured in terms of the welfare services available. The practitioner needs to know how to create things that are not there and sometimes, to "make do"

3. Usually, the practitioner needs to learn how to keep his mouth shut. The kind of gossiping that may go on between practitioners in the urban area without repercussion would most likely create serious difficulties within the community for the social worker in the rural area.

Reactions to Dr. Ginsberg

(In the brief discussion that followed Dr. Ginsberg's comments, participants largely focused on the question "What are the implications for curriculum if we are to prepare a practitioner who has these kinds of characteristics?" Many students come from rural areas, and a question was raised as to whether practice in the rural area is just as lonely for the student who grew up on the rural area and returns to it following his educational preparation. Education may set such a student apart from the community but on the other hand, such a student is known to the community and may be readily accepted by it. Some kind of cross-cultural content may be critical for students who grow up in a rural area and attend college in a community close to home. For such students, the opportunity to get outside the culture may be critical to the development of a broader perspective.)

The Symposium did not have time to examine this particular area with any depth. Generally, it was agreed by participants that if educational programs are to prepare a practitioner who has the kind of characteristics sketched by Dr. Ginsberg, much more examination of curriculum and identification of critical content areas will need to be done.

Pat Keith, director of the Family Service Association in Morgantown, West Virginia, Symposium participant, raised the following issues:

1. Rural communities tend to lack the resources and know-how to initiate and develop the services needed by the community. If this is so, then does not the social worker need to know a great deal about how one helps the community get itself together so that it can tap and utilize resources as they become available? Thus far, there seems to be far too little content in the curriculum that would help students acquire this kind of skill.

2. Is there a way that universities and social work programs in particular can use their resources to help communities strengthen their service structure? Placement of students in the field, or field instruction, could be an important resource for the rural community. Is there a way that field instruction could be focused on what the rural community wants, rather than simply on definition by agency structure or the university?

3. Is the teaching of social work methods in the traditional sense really viable for preparation for social work practice in rural areas? Does this develop the kind of "generalist" who has a capacity to carry out a variety of roles and tasks?

4. Too many students enter the field with simplistic, mythological notions about the rural community. One cannot make assumptions that the student who may have grown up in a rural community knows what the whole of the rural community is like. Even students from rural areas can undergo a kind of "culture shock" when they are exposed to parts of the community they have not seen before.

SUMMARY OF RURAL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE MEETING

ATLANTA, GEORGIA, DECEMBER 16-18, 1971

Task Force Purpose

The fact that there is enormous interest in preparation for social work practice in rural areas was amply demonstrated at the New Orleans Symposium in October. Since that time, others have indicated interest in the area, including the Council on Social Work Education.

There is every indication that, were rural practice curriculum materials available to undergraduate educators, such materials would be utilized by many schools.

The essential purpose of this task force was to follow up on the New Orleans Symposium which, while stimulating and interesting, served only to highlight some of the issues and concerns. The present task force needs to continue the task of determining whether there are significant deficiencies in preparation for social work practice in rural areas and if there are, to move toward identifying the uniquenesses in terms of curriculum content.

It was agreed that it would be highly unlikely for one task force to do the complete, conclusive job, and we should not strive for such. Rather, the task force should aim to develop some beginning curriculum materials which could get in the hands of educators and others by spring.

Very early in their work, task force members unanimously agreed that a working definition of "rural" had to be developed. That is, what do we mean by rural? How can we look at an area and know we are dealing with an area which is essentially rural? The task force spent considerable time attempting to develop "guidelines for a rural profile." Such a profile might be a useful analytical tool in terms of helping to determine whether a community is more rural than urban, and vice versa.

The "guidelines" developed by the task force included the following:

a) Services - What is the service structure of the area? Such an analysis should include examination of the public services (transportation, roads, fire, water, sewage services, etc.) as well as the health, education and welfare services. One of the characteristics of a rural community might be that services are inadequate or even nonexistent in the community. People may have to go to the larger urban area in order to secure some of the basic social services, while basic public services such as fire protection, adequate water supply, etc., may not be available at all.

b) Georgraphy - Climate, terrain, resources, travel, etc. What effect does geography have on the people and choices they may have?

c) Population - Size and type, such as blacks, migrants, chicanos, age group distinctions, etc.

d) Source of Livelihood - What is the economic base of the area? Where do people work? Is the area essentially rural non-farm, rural industrial, rural farm, etc.?

e) Lifestyle - What are the key reference groups for the residents? Are these within the rural community, or are people essentially directed toward groups in the urban area? What kinds of self-perceptions do the residents have? That is, do they see themselves as being rural, or something else?

f) Processes of Decison-Making - What are the decisions affecting rural communities? Where are the decisions made? By whom? Locally elected governmental officials, (e.g., town mayor) may not know that such decisions are being made or may not be involved in any way at all.

g) Socialization-Acceptance Process - What are the socialization processes in the community? How does one go about getting accepted in this community? People in rural communitities, for example, have had very limited experience

with social workers. In fact, their major experience is frequently with the welfare worker, and this often is synonomous with social worker. This obviously has implications for the social worker who is attempting to gain the trust and acceptance of the rural community.

h) Group-Subgroup Patterns - What are the informal and formal groupings, social and otherwise? Persons may live in a rural area but belong to groups which are essentially urban.

i) Relatedness to External Organizations, Agencies - How is the community, and persons in the community, related to organizations and structures that provide services to the community? Is the community involved in determining the ways in which it will relate to outside organizations, as well as in developing services and programs that are responsive to community concerns and needs? (Chances are great that there is very little input from the rural community in this area.)

j) Influence of Agencies - In what ways, if any, do existing agency structures influence what goes on in the rural community? Is the system of services for the rural community dominated by a few public agencies, because the private structure is practically nonexistent? Such public agencies (e.g. Board of Education and Department of Welfare) may exert an inordinate influence on the affairs of the community.

The task force considered a typology comprised of three major elements which might be a useful tool for the analysis of rural communities. Such a typology would include: a) services, b) geography and size, c) people.

Services

If one compares rural communities with urban communities, one finds that rural communities have very limited social or people service systems. For example, many rural communities lack medical and health services, and residents must travel great distances to secure such services. Even more basic, however, than the social services is the lack of essential public services such as transportation, roads, sewage, water and fire services. This is a very important difference because residents of many rural communities see the need to secure critical public services before developing social services.

Geography and Size

Generally, task force members decided that population size in and of itself is not of any use in defining a rural community; population density (because it is lower than in urban areas) becomes a problem because larger areas must be combined to develop resources and services. (For example, the recent Child Development Bill vetoed by Nixon, called for planning catch-ment areas of at least 6,000 in population.)

"Rural" can quite simply be defined as that area which exists outside the urban-suburban area. Geography becomes a critical consideration in terms of consumer participation, program development, etc. Rural areas differ and tend to have unique problems dependent upon the particular combination of land farms, climates, natural resources, transportation routes or barriers, access to markets, etc. These affect the economic base which tends to be "extractive" (i.e., farming, mining, logging, etc.) rather than industrial or technological.

People

Task force members asked the question, "Do people living in rural areas

share common characteristics which can be described and which would be useful to know about? Several members of the task force were leary of posing this kind of question in isolation from the other two factors indicated above. One can say, for example, that people in rural areas have a sense of hopelessness about organizing to secure needed services, etc., but if one recognizes that rural areas lack the economic and technical resources available to urban areas, that federal and state policies have favored urban areas, then some apathy and feelings of powerlessness are appropriate and adaptive to the reality of the situation. When "participation" and "self-help" activity was considered, it was pointed out that this might have different relevance in the rural community as compared with the urban community. Whether people in urban areas do or do not participate in identifying community problems and searching for solutions may not be critical to whether the community does or does not secure the services. In the urban community it is to the interest of industry, business, government, wealthy groups with vested interests to solve problems which endanger their own welfare. Because such powerful organized interests do not exist in rural areas, it may be that the "people participation" is the primary resource for change in rural areas. This would create a heavier demand upon rural individuals than upon urban individuals. Task force members generally agreed that if we assume the stance that behavior is adaptive and responsive to the conditions in which persons find themselves, then greater emphasis must be placed upon teaching about rural institutions and the ways in which people are related to institutions in rural areas. The institutional structure includes the political and social, the educational and welfare, and most importantly, economic. Without question, the coal company system of Appalachia or the plantation system of the South has had specific kinds of influences on the lives of the people who depend upon them directly and indirectly for their livelihood.

If certain of the assumptions stated above are to be accepted, task force members generally agreed that a community development-type approach seems indicated. That is, we accept a point of view that the people are not the problem, but rather the faulty social and economic structures which have created adaptive responses in people. If the social worker is to be helpful, he will have to help people secure some of the kinds of resources and services that are needed to develop their communities. The question was posed as to whether this is an appropriate role for the social worker. If the social worker begins carrying out these kinds of tasks, he may need to become a different kind of professional person. We cannot count that another discipline will do the job of helping the community to develop. As a matter of fact, no profession is currently focused on rural community development.

The question was raised, What is a social worker? One task force member stated that "a social worker is someone who can be helpful to people where they are." However, both educators and agencies have been far more critical in determining what social workers in rural areas are trained to do than have the consumers and, in this case, rural residents. It may be that we are talking about a mix of of three groups sharing in the determination of what students and social workers will do: that is, educators, agencies and consumers. Baccalaureate education generally has accepted the notion of preparation of the generalist worker. However, if education for preparation for work in rural areas were to become responsive to what rural communities see as their concerns and wants, then such input from communities would help both agencies and educators learn more precisely and specifically what the students need to know, or, along with the roles which are defined in the "Manpower Utilization in Social Welfare" material, what the particular role clusters might be. At the present time, the rural worker has been primarily based on models developed in urban areas. It may very well be that in rural communities, there will be a need for a different model (in terms of roles and skills) of the social worker.

Assumptions

On the basis of the preceding discussion, task force members attempted to identify and list certain assumptions which, once agreed upon, would serve as a guide to curriculum and curriculum materials for social work practice in rural areas. These assumptions are as follows:

1. People in rural areas are more like people in non-rural areas than they are different from them. We need to look at the economic, political, social, and other institutions and conditions that have shaped the lives of people in rural areas. Because such institutions will be different in rural areas, they will produce different responses and adaptive behaviors in different rural areas.

2. There is a great variance among rural communities, e.g., rural-industrial, rural farming, rural non-farming, etc.

3. There are unique problems in rural areas, particularly in the lack of basic public services. Problems of rural areas tend to be more like problems of underdeveloped countries; that is, basic public services and necessities are lacking. Services related to sustaining life will have priority (i.e., food, shelter, health, transportation, etc.) over social services focused on quality of life.

4. Poverty in rural areas tends to be long-standing and generational, due to the plantation system and other forms of economic exploitation.

5. There are unique differences in the welfare system of the rural area. It may be a less formal system, with an informal network and different kinds of resources. These systems need to be studied. It is possible that there are "positives" which need to be recognized and strengthened. Programs based on urban experience may be dysfunctional in rural areas.

6. Poverty tends to be scattered in rural areas; e.g., very poor families may live within a stone's throw of middle-income families. The exception to this may be in areas where segregation of minority groups has developed.

7. People in rural areas, because of long-standing nature of their problems and generational poverty, may tend to be more resistant or suspicious of change.

8. Unusual and unique barriers to participation exist in community decision-making. The scattered nature of much of the population, lack of transportation, population diversity, and lack of access to, or knowledge of, technical assistance and resources are among these barriers.

9. Rural people have limited experience with professinnal persons and roles. The social worker tends to be viewed as the "welfare worker" who provides financial help and has not been a prime resource in helping the community deal with problems.

10. There is a common core of generic content to all of social work practice. Such a core includes knowledge of human behavior and skills in analysis and problem-solving and in basic practice skills. There is, however, substantive knowledge which is unique and different as it pertains to rural communities and which the social worker must know if he is to be helpful to people in rural areas.

Social Work Practice in Rural Areas

The task force then attempted to begin defining what the social worker does in social work practice in rural areas. The task force identified the following tasks and activities:

1. Works with a variety of other helping persons who are not social workers or may not be social work related. These include extension workers, public health personnel, school principals and teachers, ministers, etc. The task force spent considerable time on this because it was recognized that persons who are in helping roles may not be those who are usually acknowledged by social workers and helping people. For example, volunteers and lay people may be carrying out some of the helping roles which in an urban area would be filled by highly trained professionals.

2. Carries out activities which will develop the sanction of the community. Earning such sanction will depend upon the worker's analysis of the community situation and his skill in helping produce results.

3. Understands and relates appropriately to local mores, customs, power structure, etc. Recognizes that his own values and beliefs may be in conflict with local mores, cuxtoms, etc.

4. Surveys, analyzes, assesses and evaluates the community situation as part of the process of identifying and defining the problems.

5. Organizes people for participation in community decison-making.

6. Assists in planning and motivating activities in order to overcome resistances and stimulate change.

7. Stimulates the creation of new services.

8. Informs and educates as to where additional resources may be secured.

9. Identifies the need for technical assistance and helps in the securing of them.

10. Provides a wide range of direct services as needed to rural residents.

11. Mobilizes existing community resources; identifies who the helping people and institutions are in the community.

12. Provides information and feedback to agencies and institutional structure; manipulates structures in efforts to increase greater responsiveness to needs of rural residents.

13. Provide direct assistance to the community in the area of grants and fund raising.

14. Carries out communications, publicity, public relations kinds of activities.

Social Work Roles

Based upon the activities as defined above, the task force briefly

examined these activities in relation to the roles as defined in the manpower utilization material. It appears that all of the roles are relevant for the social work practitioner in a rural area; that is, the generalist worker Heavier emphasis would perhaps be given to such roles as outreach, advocate, evaluator, teacher, mobilizer, community planner, and administrator. Less emphasis might be given to roles of broker, consultant, behaviour changer, care-giver, and data manager. However, it should be noted that the difference in emphasis is a matter of conjecture only, and is not based upon any kind of hard information. As a matter of fact, one could surmise that the degree to which some roles are emphasized more than others would vary from community to community and would be influenced by many factors, such as nature of the problems, other resources available, including technical and professional resources.

Curriculum Implications

The task force, based upon the previous assumptions and the consideration of worker activities and roles, then considered what it is that the worker needs to know. What will need to be included in the curriculum if we are to prepare practitioners for rural areas? As already noted, the task force agreed that there is a generic practice core; that this has been in some measure defined by the Council on Social Work Education and also by the faculty development project of SREB which has detailed the kinds of roles which would be assumed by the generalist practitioner. It was further agreed that, in addition to the generic practice core, there is content which we can now begin to define as "generic rural core." Such a generic rural core would include content that is descriptive generally of rural areas, and is not conceived as preparation for practice in specific rural areas; e.g., hollow communities of West Virginia, rural black areas of the South, etc. Generic rural content would include knowledge in such areas as: (a) rural people, (b) rural communities which would include historical perspectives, (c) service structures, (d) potential resources: local, state, regional, and national, (e) population shift, migration and mobility, (f) state and federal policies; the impact on rural America, (g) political, economic, and legal systems, (h) problems unique to people of rural areas.

The task force believes that a generic rural core can be developed and made available to schools who see their particular challenge as preparation for practice in rural areas. Individual schools, however, would have to develop "specific content" (by specific content is meant information which is applicable to a particular rural population group). The student would use the generic rural core while testing and developing his skills in a specific rural area. The rural core would generally provide students with a knowledge base for rural practice while the specific content would provide the student with knowledge needed to practice with a specific rural population or populations; e.g. Appalachians, black tenant farmers, etc.

Additional Materials Needed

Task force members agreed to assist in the assembling of additional materials as follows:

1. Resources unique to rural areas. For example, rural technical assistance programs, rural housing alliance. There are others that must be identified and described.

2. Bibliographical materials dealing with such content areas as rural life, work in rural areas, technical assistance programs related to rural areas,

general readings, and other rural programs.

3. Curriculum models. Particularly, these that pertain to ways in which programs have begun to modify teaching and field instruction for the rural areas.

4. Course units and modules.

5. Case materials

6. Teaching materials, films, etc.

7. Teaching methods and strategies.

Southern Regional Education Board
Education and Training SRS Manpower in the South
Task Force on Rural Practice

Statement of Educational Assumptions as
Revised by the Rural Task Force - June 1972
(Based on Material Developed by Prof. Betty Baer)

1. There is no clearcut definition of "rural areas," and in fact such a definition is unimportant. What is important is the vact that many baccalaureate level social workers will be working with people and with communities that are geographically outside the urban-suburban area.

2. There is a great variance among rural communities, e.g., rural-industrial, rural farming, rural non-farming, etc. They are very different in style, customs, economic situation, population density, geographic location and topography.

3. Rural areas, like urban and suburban areas, change in response to population mobility, technology and other factors.

4. People in rural areas are more like people in non-rural areas than they are different from them. We need to look at the economic, political, social, and other institutions and conditions that have shaped the lives of people in rural areas, Because such institutions will be different in rural areas, they will produce different responses and adaptive behaviors in different rural areas.

5. There are unique problems in rural areas, particularly in the lack of basic public services. Problems of rural areas tend to be more like problems of underdeveloped countries; that is, basic public services and necessities are lacking. Services related to sustaining life will have priority (i.e., food, shelter, health, transportation, etc.) over social services focused on quality of life.

6. Rural communities have problems which are common to all communities everywhere. For example, such problems as mental retardation, physical and emotional disabilities, alcoholism, drug abuse and deliquency are not unique to rural areas.

7. Many of the problems of people living in rural areas must be viewed within the context of unique social, economic and political systems which have been dysfunctional, exploitative, unjust and inadequate to many persons in rural areas, most particularly in Appalachia and the South.

8. Poverty in rural areas tends to be longstanding, and generational, due to the plantation system and other forms of economic exploitation.

p. 17 blank

9. Poverty tends to be scattered in rural areas; e.g., very poor families may live within a stone's throw of middle-income families. The exception to this may be in areas where segregation of minority groups has developed.

10. There are unique differences in the social welfare delivery system of rural areas. It may be a less formal system, with an informal network and resources which arenot commonly viewed as part of the traditional welfare system. These systems need to be studied so that the "positives" are recognized and strengthened. Programs based on urban experience may be dysfunctional in rural areas.

11. Some people in rural areas, due to the long-standing nature of their problems and generational poverty may tend to be more resistant or suspicious of change.

12. Unusual and unique barriers exist to the participation in community decision making. The scattered nature of much of the population, lack of transportation, population diversity, and lack of access to, or knowledge of, technical assistance and resources are among these barriers.

13. Rural communities tend towards greater conformity with conventional norms and remain as the last stronghold for the old convention virtues and prejudices. The strengths which are an inherent part of such conformity must be recognized and valued by the social worker

14. Rural people have more limited experience with professional persons and roles. The social worker tends to be viewed as the "welfare worker" who provides financial help and has not been a prime resource in helping the community to deal with problems.

15. There are ethnic and cultural differences which are a characteristic of many rural communities. Such differences must be recognized and respected. Social workers must be sensitive to the desires of such communities in terms of the kind of helping person the community feels it can effectively work with and relate to if there is to be an intimate involvement with the community and its problems.

16. Because of the lesser number of formal social welfare agencies which deal with specific problems, rural communities have a special need for workers who can help them define problems and develop solutions.

17. Because of the non-availability of many of the formal, more specialized welfare services, the rural social worker must often react to problems as a generalist.

18. There are many myths, stereotypes and generalizations about rural life and rural communities which the social work practitioner must examine carefully and critically.

19. There is a common core of generic content to all of social work practice. Such a core includes knowledge of human behavior and skills in analysis and problem-solving and in basic practice skills. There is, however, substantive knowledge which is unique and different as it pertains to rural communities and which the social worker must know if he is to be helpful to people in rural areas.

Southern Regional Education Board
Education and Training SRS Manpower in the South
Task Force on Rural Practice

Statement on Educational Objectives as
Revised by the Rural Task Force - June 1972
(Based on Material Developed by Prof. Betty Baer)

1. He is especially skillful in working with a variety of helping persons who are not social workers or who may not be related to the profession of social work, as well as with fellow social workers.

2. He is able to carry out careful study, analysis, and other methods of inquiry in order to understand the community in which he finds himself.

3. He utilizes his knowledge of the customs, traditions, heritage and contemporary culture of the rural people with whom he is working to provide services to the people with special awareness and sensitivity.

4. He is able to identify and mobilize a broad range of resources which would be particularly applicable to problem resolution in rural areas. These would include existing and potential resources on the local, state, regional and federal level.

5. He is able to assist communities in developing new resources and/or ways in which already existing resources could be better or more fully utilized to benefit the rural community.

6. He is able to identify with and practice in accordance with the values of the profession and grow in his ability and effectiveness as a professional social worker in situations and settings where he may be the only professional social worker.

7. He is able to identify and analyze the strengths and/or gaps and shortcomings in governmental and non-governmental social policies as they affect the needs of people in rural areas.

8. He accepts his professional responsibility to develop appropriate measures to promote more responsiveness to needs of people in rural areas from governmental and non-governmental organizations.

9. He is able to help identify and create new and different helping roles in order to respond to the needs and problems of rural communities.

10. He initiates and provides technical assistance to rural governing bodies and other organized groups in rural communities.

p. 21 blank

11. He is able to practice as a generalist, carrying out a wide range of roles, to solve a wide range of problems of individuals and groups as well as of the larger community.

12. He is able to communicate and interact appropriately with people in the rural community, and adapt his personal life style to the professional tasks to be done.

13. He is able to be evaluative of his own professional performance.

14. He is able to work within an agency or organization, and plan for and initiate change in agency policy and practice when such change is indicated.

15. On the basis of continuous careful observation, he contributes knowledge about effective practice in rural areas.

Guidelines for a Rural Profile

Developed by Southern Regional Education
Board Task Force on Rural Practice

The "guidelines" developed by the task force included the following: (a) Services - What is the service structure of the area? Such an analysis should include examination of the public services (transportation, roads, fire, water, and sewage services, etc. as well as the health, education, and welfare services.) One of the characteristics of a rural community might be that services are inadequate or even nonexistent in the community. People may have to go to the larger urban area in order to secure some of the basic social services, while basic public services, such as fire protection, adequate water supply, etc., may not be available at all. (b) Geography - Climate, terrain, resources, travel, etc. What effect does geography have on the people and choices they may have? (c) Population - Size and type, such as blacks, migrants, chicanos, age group distinctions, etc. (d) Source of Livelihood - What is the economic base of the area? Where do people work? I s the area essentially rural non-farm, rural industrial, rural farm, etc? (e) Lifestyle - What are the key reference groups for the residents? Are these within the rural community, or are people essentially directed toward groups in the urban area? What kinds of self-perceptions do the residents have? That is, do they see themselves as being rural or something else? (f) Processes of Decision-Making - What are the decisions affecting rural communities? Where are the decisions made? By whom? (Locally elected governmental officials, e.g., town mayor, may not know that such decisions are being made or may not be involved in any way at all.) (g) Socialization-Acceptance Process - What are the socialization processes in the community? How does one go about getting accepted in the community? People in rural communities, for example, have had very limited experience with social workers. In fact, their major experience is frequently with the welfare worker, and this often is synonomous with social worker. This obviously has implications for the social worker who is attempting to gain the trust and acceptance of the rural community. (h) Group-Subgroup Patterns - What are the informal and formal groupings, social and otherwise? Persons may live in a rural area but belong to groups which are essentially urban. (i) Relatedness to External Organizations, Agencies - How is the community, and persons in the community related to organizations and structures that provide services to the community? Is the community involved in determining the ways in which it will relate to outside organizations, as well as in developing services and programs that are responsive to community concerns and needs. (Chances are great that there is very little input from the rural community in this area.) (j) Influence of Agencies - In what ways, if any, do existing agency structures influence what goes on in the rural community? Is the system of services for the rural community dominated by a few public agencies, because the private structure is practically nonexistent? Such public agencies, e.g. Board of Education and Department of Welfare, may exert an inordinate influence on the affairs of the community.

The task force considered a typology comprised of three major elements which might be useful tools for the analysis of rural communities. Such a typology would include? (a) services, (b) geography and size, (c) people.

Conclusion

Obviously, this brief discussion has not said everything there is to say about the practice of social work in rural communities. It has traced one institution's efforts to prepare people for work in rural and small communities, and it has outlined some of the more important characteristics of effective practice in such communities.

There is much more known about rural practice, particularly by rural practitioners, than has been written on the subject. Collecting information from them and distributing it to others can be useful endeavors.

This report of the SREB task force represents one effort in that direction. Hopefully it will be only one of many that will emerge in the coming years.

OBSERVATIONS ON PREPARING STUDENTS

FOR THE PRACTICE OF SOCIAL WORK IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Leon H. Ginsberg, Dean,
School of Social Work, West Virginia
University, Morgantown, W. Virginia

The West Virginia University School of Social Work has devoted the past four years to the preparation of social work practitioners for practice in rural and small communities. Intensive thinking, writing, and work have gone into that mission. And, of course, the goal has been pursued by faculty members, students, clients and social work practitioners.

It was a difficult and challenging effort because it was first necessary for the school to create the kinds of knowledge necessary for teaching effective rural practice. And, obviously, teaching rural practice would have been impossible without small community and rural field instruction placements. These, too, had to be developed and creating field instruction placements is always a sensitive process. The experiences must be carefully constructed in a manner that will provide appropriate learnings for students and services to clients, without damaging either.

Through building upon the existing agency structures and through the support of federal & state grants the school has been able to develop rural field instruction placements in mental health, child development, community organization and settlement services that provide educational activities for students and services for clients they reach.

Classroom curriculum has also required development. The school has chosen to incorporate rural content into its total undergraduate and graduate program. Only one course is specifically identified with the school's rural emphasis and it is called "Social Welfare in Appalachia." However, rural content is incorporated into every sequence and every course in the undergraduate and graduate programs to some degree.

The school continues to work in uncharted terrain. The basic literature of social work and the social sciences is not rural in orientation. In fact, most of the important ideas are described in almost exclusively urban and metropolitan contexts. Therefore, the orientation of the classroom and the field instruction curriculum are not purely rural. There simply is not enough carefully prepared rural social work material. A rural emphasis has to be special effort and a direction in the early 1970's, because the profession of social work is more closely tied to the urban scene and because the profession's experience in developing and teaching about social work in non-metropolitan situations is recent. However, the West Virginia University School's student body continues to be predominantly rural in origin, and many of its graduates return to rural communities when they finish their education. Many students who come from urban areas also locate in rural communities when they graduate.

Every new plan for a program is screened against its applicability to rural and small community practice. Even the overseas program, which has included field instruction placements in Africa and Wales and which also included participation in the Council of International Programs for Social Workers and Youth Leaders, is rural.

In essence, the school attempts to be as "rural" as it can, which necessitates feeling its way, adapting non-rural concepts to rural situations, and working to develop knowledge about non-metropolitan America.

Much of what we know about the practice of social work in rural areas has come from sources other than the traditional textbooks, articles and monographs. We have had to tap the memories and conceptualizations of rural social work practitioners in various parts of the United States, many of whom know a great deal about the practice of social work in small communities, but hwo have not always put their thoughts on paper. Therefore, much of the material in this presentation draws upon oral statements and observations by thoughtful rural people from the various parts of the United States where I have conducted seminars and institutes on rural concerns. These areas include every corner of the United States, because social work is practiced in rural communities throughout the country. Non-metropolitan social workers have special knowledge about the special characteristics of practice in small communities, and the study of social work practice in such communities can often proceed best by collecting and analyzing the insights of those who know small town America best.

Some Problems in Rural Field Instruction

Those who teach about non-metropolitan social work practice have had to struggle with the question of what is actually rural. For example, a large number of the field instruction placements in the West Virginia University School of Social Work's undergraduate and graduate programs are in and around Morgantown and Fairmont, West Virginia, both small cities under 50,000 population. Sometimes even they seem too large, although most other schools of social work that place students in communities as small as Morgantown and Fairmont consider those placements rural.

The social agency structures of both communities are generally small. Both have family service agencies with full-time directors and part-time staff. The Welfare Department has a regional office in Fairmont and an "emergency services" staff in Morgantown. There are offices of employment security, vocational rehabilitation, and Social Security which serve the region. West Virginia University, which is located in Morgantown, has a relatively well developed social service program in its University Hospital but, even there, the social work staff is small.

These communities are, obviously, much smaller than the metropolitan communities in which most social work field instruction takes place. Their programs and operations are so different that they obviously provide a learning experience that is equally different from that which is provided in Milwaukee, Oklahoma City, Birmingham, or most of the other cities in which schools of social work place students.

Of course, the definition of "rural" and "small community" is invariably relative. The West Virginia University School's field instruction placement in South Wales, which has already been mentioned, is called, by the faculty of Swansea College, a rural placement. And they say this because their two major placement communities, Aberdare and Merthyr Tydfl, are classified by the Welch as villages. Both are about the same size as Morgantown and Fairmont, The British and American notions of village life obviously differ.

The West Virginia University School has been able, however, to expand into settings so rural that they pose some hardships for the graduate students who take them and a hardship to the faculty members who serve them. One of the more important such placements is at the Appalachian Community Mental Health Center in Elkins, West Virginia. The student project there is funded by a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health. Other rural placements are

with child development programs in Crum, Hart's Creek, Summersville, and Parsons, West Virginia, under a grant from the Appalachian Regional Commission.

Transportation to these decidedly rural field instruction sites is so difficult that faculty members must often block out as much as two days to visit as few as two students. Although the distances may be as short as 150 miles, the transportation is inadequate. There is no plane service, the bus schedules are impractical, and driving, the only practical mode of travel, must be done in mountainous terrain. One must expect to use some three hours for every hundred miles of travel. Of course, such settings are practical only in a block field instruction program.

Graduate students who choose such rural placements invariable have difficulty finding housing. One student lived in one room of a house that had no running water, no heat, and no indoor plumbing. He shaved at his field instruction agency, rather than his residence, when he wanted to use hot water. Another student, a woman, was able to find temporary housing only with an 83-year old landlady who supervised the student's behavior, checked carefully into her religious activities, and otherwise invaded her privacy. In an urban situation, the student would have been able to move to other quarters. In the rural situation, the quarters she had were the only ones available.

The lack of availability and the lack of adequate housing should not be surprising to persons who have studied rural America. The predominance of inadequate housing in the United States is located in rural, not metropolitan areas. Even worse, there is a general lack of any housing in many rural communities.

It should not be implied that students in the most rural of the field instruction placements are unhappy with them. Many first-year graduate students insist on returning for second-year placements, and some become permanently employed in the settings where they are located, after completing their MSW's. However, it is clear that the students who choose the most rural placements (all students choose their placements in West Virginia University, rather than having them assigned) are a bit bolder than the students who stay in the relatively comfortable surroundings of communities such as Morgantown Charleston and Huntington.

It should be mentioned that the School of Social Work also uses several urban placements. The school places all of its students, graduate and undergraduate, in the Appalachian region which ranges from Western New York to Eastern Mississippi and includes several large cities. The school finds some need for urban and metropolitan placements, if the career needs of all the students are to be met. However, the predominance of field instruction placements (25 to 32 agencies and settings for the fall 1972 semester) is in communities of 50,000 and under.

What is Good Rural Social Work Practice:

In the four years that the School of Social Work has been dealing with rural issues, I have published several articles, including one in the 1971 Encyclopedia of Social Work, on rural social work practice. It is possible to make broad pronouncements on rural social work because there has been so little written recently that has not been written or published by someone from the West Virginia University School of Social Work. However, there is an increasing amount of such material coming from other sources which has proven helpful in defining the whole subject.

But essentially, it has to be made clear that social work practice in a rural community is different only in some dimensions and in some magnitude from practice in urban communities. That is, most of the faculty at the West Virginia University School of Social Work think that quality social work practice is simply that--quality social work-practice. One makes adaptations of that practice to one's setting, of course, if one practices social work well. In all situations, it would seem, effective social work practice is social work practice adapted to the environment. The worker who tries to practice in New York City as he had in South Carolina makes some serious errors. Similarly, the worker whose basic experience is in Chicago makes significant errors if he attempts to translate the details of that practice to Tulsa. Quality social work practice, because it is so inextricably tied to the social environment in which it is practiced, is always adapted.

I am willing to assert that there is no distinct rural social work practice--there is only good social work practice adapted to rural situations.

It is clear from my conversations with rural practitioners and my observations of rural social work that those who are most effective are skillful in some of the basics of community development. That is, those who know how to feel their way into a community, assess the structure and norms of the community, and build bridges to it through its various components are generally more successful than those who lack knowledge about community development skills. It would seem that effective rural social work practice requires some understanding of community theory and some skill in community development. Some books, such as E.T. Hall's The Silent Language, provide excellent background information for making the transition into almost any new community for the person who is sensitive to the cultural dimensions of communal life. The sort of training that used to be provided to Peach Corps and VISTA workers preparing for entrance into the field is, it would seem to me, ideal training for the professional social workers who serve non-urban communities. The balance of this discussion will review some of the adaptations that appear to be crucial for effective rural practice.

Lack of Formal Structure

One of the more significant characteristics of rural social welfare programs is a lack of formal structure. It is also one of the more confounding discoveries that rural practitioners, including rural field instruction students seem to make when they enter into a rural practice for the first time.

One example is the experience encountered by the West Virginia University School's new faculty members and two graduate field instruction students who became engaged in developing a child development program related to maternal and child health in Southern West Virginia.

The program was brand new and only tentatively defined. There were many questions to be answered, such as what the relationship would be between social workers and nurses, what the relationship should be between the special project and the County Health Department, and how small matters, such as the purchase of equipment and supplies to carry on the work of the clinic would be handled. There were larger questions such as the eligibility system for determining who could and could not use the service and the relationship of these new services to Department of Welfare clients, whose medical needs were being met in other ways.

There were simply no immediate answers to such questions. Fortunately, the field instructor assigned to the project and the students were all relatively independent people with some experience in small community work who knew that these kinds of questions had to be answered and that in the absence of directives they would have to answer them themselves. So they worked with others who were involved, arrived at answers that appeared to be sensible, and they slowly evolved policies. In fact, within a few months, the sponsoring organization took some of the practices that had been developed by the social work unit and wrote them into a policy manual. Other practices were rejected, and these helped define the limits of the program.

This is not an unusual experience for rural practitioners. The worker who needs someone else to answer such questions is often at a disadvantage in the rural community. The provision of social services requires structure and policy, and the lack of structure in rural situations makes it necessary for others to create and provide answers.

Social workers in rural communities must understand, however, that a lack of formal structure does not mean that there is a total lack of structure. In fact, rural communities generally find ways to deal with most of the human service needs that arise. Sometimes those needs are met by churches, community-minded individuals, civic organizations, police departments and county governments. It is often desirable in rural communities for workers to build upon these existing services rather than attempting to begin totally new ones. It is often true, also, that the creation of new services will threaten established ways of doing things in the community. Therefore, those who are providing services should be involved in the planning and delivery of any new services. What may initially appear to be an absence of services may ultimately be identified or viewed as a base for the organization of comprehensive human services.

All of this means that the ideal rural worker needs to be someone with an unusual degree of initiative, as well as an unusual degree of tact--creating answers to difficult questions is often an offensive process for those who are not part of the process of definition. So the competent rural worker involves others in answering questions that must be answered and does so in a delicate, open and involving way.

Relating to the Rural Community

Rural communities have as much, if not more, of the suspicion of outsiders that is often endemic in any social situation. Therefore, effective rural social workers tend to be clear, even precise, about their roles, their objectives, and their auspices. Our School of Social Work has found that graduate students have a minimum of difficulty in gaining acceptance when they make it clear that they are students from the West Virginia University School of Social Work whose objectives are to learn while providing service to the community that is being served. Perhaps it is the temporary nature of their assignments that helps them gain such acceptance. They often seem to have less difficulty in the Appalachian region, which has tended to be a region that is suspicious of outsiders, than permanent residents.

At an institute recently sponsored by the Center for Continuing Education and Community Action for Social Service, University of Wisconsin-Extension, several specialists made observations about skill in relating to rural communities.

Bill Adams, chief of Special Services in the Eau Claire Wisconsin Regional Office of the Division of Family Services in the Wisconsin Department of Health and Social Services, recently remarked that rural workers must follow certain dictates if they are to be successful. He suggested, for example, that rural workers must avoid being complicated in their descriptions of programs and in their work with communities. He said that informality in dress is often strategically wise, although lack of neatness can be a barrier to effective work.

Mr. Adams addressed the need for direct contact with members of the community. People in rural communities, he suggested, need and want personal, "man-to-man" conversations about issues that are of concern to them. Frequently, he noted, clients and community residents will tend to bypass agency staff members and go directly to executive directors, This has to be understood and accepted by all those who are involved.

He also suggested that the effective rural social worker is one who is able to "zig-zag," rather than coming on frontally and directly with proposals and evaluations of projects. Similarly, the effective rural social worker, according to Mr. Adams, is one who is willing to talk to a community about its needs and limitations but who is sensitive about doing so.

Dr. John Hunnicutt, chairman of the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire Department of Sociology, discussed the concept of community and applied it to rural areas. He quoted the classical sociologist, W.I. Thomas, who suggested that a community is that geographical entity which is as far as an individual is known. Dr. Hunnicutt also stressed that problems are those matters that a community identifies as problems--that problems are culturally bound. He also pointed to the need for rural social workers to stress the strengths rather than the weaknesses of rural communities. An emphasis on the community's strengths and an effort to build upon them in preventing problems might be, he suggested, a better approach than discussing problems and their solutions. Dr. Hunnicutt noted that many professional people coming out of their experience as Americans stress the individual rather than the community. But in the small community, he proposed, community life exists. What happens in the total community context is often more important than the individual actors in community life. He also proposed that a relatively long association with the community might be necessary before one understands it sufficiently to conduct research or to provide services.

Useful observations, such as those provided by Mr. Adams and Dr. Hunnicutt, should become part of the knowledge base of the rural social worker. Of course, not every worker can do and remember everything that has been said about the rural community. Perhaps Gary Johnson, director of the Clark County Department of Social Services, offered the most critical observation, which is that persons in rural communities are more interested in receiving concrete help from social workers than they are in such minor matters as dress and accent.

One might conclude that the rural worker needs a certain king of openness, an ability to ask for help, and a willingness to offer clear, perhaps detailed explanations of what he or she is to do. Most important is the capacity to provide the kind of help that the community wants and needs. In terms of understanding, perhaps most important is the worker's capacity to understand and relate to the culture of the community and its decision-making processes.

Need to Work with Traditional, Social, Religious, Civic and Political Organizations.

Rural communities are not unorganized. They have many organizations, although

so important for skillful people to be involved in the delivery of services in rural communities.

Understanding Regional Variations

It is very difficult to generalize, of course, about rural communities and small community social work practice. This discussion began with an indication of the importance of adapting social work practice to the norms and patterns of local communities. Rural communities vary in their behavior, their values, their decision-making processes, and their ethnic composition, as much as metropolitan communities do. Somehow, people have assumed that rural communities are totally agricultural, or largely black, or totally white Protestants, or composed of migrants. There are rural communities consisting, in large measure, of each of these kinds of groups, but no one of them represents the totality of rural life in the United States. There are communities which are largely industrial, though rural. There are large areas of rural non-farm populations. There are rural communities that are almost totally Catholic and rural communities that have never had Catholic citizens. There are rural communities that are 100 percent black and rural communities that are 100 percent white. There are rural communities composed primarily of Chicano migrant workers and communities consisting of Chicanos who rarely, if ever, travel further than 34 miles from their homes. There are rural communities consisting almost exclusively of descendants of Eastern European migrants and rural communities that have populations wholly composed of fourth, fifth, and sixth generation American citizens.

It is important that one preparing for a rural social work career understand these wide variations in rural community character and be prepared to adapt to them. Each rural community will have its own set of characteristics, based in large measure upon its ethnic composition, its history, its economy, and all of the other elements that go into an appropriate community study. The successful rural worker should not pre-suppose any particular set of conditions for the rural community in which he or she is working or in which he or she plans to work. The skeptical, open, community development approach described earlier is useful in dealing with such variations.

Rural Practice: Incentives, and Limitations

Obviously, practicing in a rural community has its positives and its negatives. Mrs. Abigail McCarthy, writing in the Atlantic Magazine in June 1972, perhaps described the rural community's attitudes toward its professional workers best when she discussed her early teaching experiences in the Mid-West. "We were ...told that we were expected to spend three weekends out of every four in Litchfield, since the town paid us and expected us to spend our money there. To assure the town that we were really earning our salaries, we were instructed to be in our classrooms by 8:30 in the morning and not to leave them before 5. The school football games and basketball games were a great source of revenue, and we were all expected to work at them, taking tickets, guarding gates, ushering. After this initial meeting, the high school principal, a woman, gathered the woman teachers together to instruct them in the morality expected of them by the community. We were not to smoke, drink, or go to local dances, and it was strongly advised that we attend a local church. She also discussed the necessity of modest clothing."

Nearly 35 years after Mrs. McCarthy's experience, I heard a rural social work practitioner and educator, Ms. Margo Swain of Mississippi State University, describe her own early experiences as a child welfare worker in a rural

they may not be specifically social welfare organizations. Such organizations traditionally reflect local ways of doing things, local power institutions and local history. It should not take the social worker in a rural community very long to discover the need for interaction with many groups from which he might remain disengaged in an urban setting.

Churches are often the most important among these. Every student who has participated in rural field instruction programs relates stories of the pervasiveness of religion in rural communitities and of the significance of churches in those communities. One student said that every person in the community was defined as a "good, decent sort," or a "bad sort," on the basis of church affiliation and participation. It is close to impossible to be a respectable agnostic in most truly rural communities. And the churches tend to be traditional. Communities are frequently dominated by specific religious bodies, depending upon the composition of the population. There are rural communities that are predominantly German-Catholic. Others are predominantly Presbyterian, Baptist or Methodist. The influence of each kind of church is, of course, felt by the total community.

The same is true of organizations such as the Lions, Kiwanis, American Legion, Rotary, Veterans of Foreign Wars and the American Association of University Women. Such organizations often play only minor roles in urban situations, but they are often the crux of the community's life in rural settings. As has been mentioned earlier, they often come closer than any other organizations to providing social services to those who are in significant need but not covered by the large public programs. The Presidents of local civic and veterans groups are often important figures in the delivery of social welfare programs.

Formal governmental bodies are also important. While it is true that in many urban and metropolitan situations people know little or nothing about their county governments, county officals are key actors in rural and small community governmental matters. They often hold power over the financial and physical resources that are essential for social welfare services. They may often be part-time officials, also holding down full-time jobs as varied as coal mining and executive corporation leadership. But they are sources to be reckoned with, and the wise social worker in a rural community learns about them and relates to them.

Even the traditional social welfare agencies are often different in rural communities. Since local offices have latitude over rules and regulations affecting social services, rural rules may be at variance with the rules of the statewide organization, urban practices or, in some cases, federal standards.

Occasionally, the ability to help an agency carry out functions that it ought to carry out anyway, depends on personal contacts and skillful persuasion.

As has been pointed out in other written materials on the practice of social work in rural communities, the surveillance of rural communities and the enforcement of regulations is often less rigid than it is in metropolitan areas. This is an important fact for rural practitioners to understand, and it is another indication of why rural practitioners must probably be more responsible, more self-directed, and more capable of autonomous ethical functioning than their counterparts in urban and metropolitan situations. Frequently, the only controls over the operation of programs in rural communities are the controls imposed by area administrators or managers, themselves. Similarly, the creativity of programs depends upon the creativity of the area administrators. That is why it is

community at an institute sponsored by the University of Alabama and the Southern Regional Education Board. among other things, she reported, it was necessary for her to serve as the Boy Scout and Girl Scout leader. The community assumed that if she were a child welfare worker, she would know how to work with children in all of the ways children needed help. In addition, the local postmaster raised questions about some of the liberal magazines she received and wondered why she did not receive the magazines that most young women would be expected to read--such as the Ladies' Home Companion and Good Housekeeping.

Professional workers in rural communities are, of course, under careful scrutiny by their clients and other citizens in the community. One can maintain privacy, but it is often more difficult to do so in a rural than in an urban community. Involvement in a community is often an essential part of effective practice as is sensitivity to community norms.

But rural practice has its rewards, too. It may often seem from discussions of the charaxteristics of rural communities that there are more limitations than advantages. Such a conclusion is not intended. Rather, the positives attract many people to rural communities.

For many, rural life is simply more pleasant that urban. Air pollution is not normally a problem, nor is traffic congestion. Commuting is often unnecessary, although the shortage of housing sometimes means that one must live a distance from one's work.

The opportunities for being independent, for making one's own decisions, and for defining one's own program are often inducements for many people to work in rural communities. In addition, rural workers often move more rapidly into positions of leadership than do those in urban situations, where the numbers of employees are larger and the opportunity ladders more filled with competitors.

And it might be said that rural communities offer one of the last opportunities for a person to live a genuine community life. Such a life has an attraction for many people.

Many rural social workers say that they can see the results of their work. The worker can have impact in the practice of social work in rural communities. Such is not always the case in urban situations.

Some have wondered whether rural workers who come from rural communities would be more effective than those who migrate from urban to rural areas. Of course, one cannot generalize about such an issue. Some local persons are so bound up themselves in the community's patterns and decision-making processes that they cannot be objective about them. Therefore, they may be less effective than an outsider coming into a new situation. Then, too, some urban practitioners who are unaware of their own behavior patterns and characteristics, may be unconsciously offensive to the community. Perhpas, as was mentioned earlier in this discussion, the community evaluates the person on his or her capacity to help, less than on extraneous factors. Being sensitive to the community and to one's own behavior is the essential quality. Whether one gains that through a lifetime of experience in rural life or whether one gains it from reading, talking and observation, is less important than the acquisition of the necessary skills.

Conclusion

Obviously, this brief discussion has not said everything there is to say about the practice of social work in rural communities. It has traced one institution's efforts to prepare people for work in rural and small communities, and it has outlined some of the more important characteristics of effective practice in such communities.

There is much more known about rural practice, particularly by rural practitioners, than has been written on the subject. Collecting information from them and distributing it to others can be a useful endeavor.

This report of the SREB task force represents one effort in that direction. Hopefully it will be only one of many that will emerge in the coming years.

SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION FOR RURAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Joanne Mermelstein
Paul Sundet
School of Social Work Univ. of Missouri

Introduction

The postulate of the generalist social worker as the logical and necessary professional model for the rural context has been proposed by several authors but largely from the basis of scarcity of manpower to perform specialist functions and rural community expectations that the social worker should be able to solve human problems "...without regard to strict definitions of specialization or of problems areas."[3] It is our position that the generalist social worker is indeed the prescribed role especially suited to the rural context, and it is within that role set that the function or sub-role of program developer will be examined.

However, the tenets or conditions of practice from which our conclusions of professional role derive are not synonymous with those cited in the literature. The implication of the description of the generalist as it appears in the Social Work Encyclopedia and elsewhere seems to assume a basic therapeutic or remedial orientation to human problems, and also assumes a target population of micro-systems, i.e., individuals and families who stand in need of the specific services offered. What expansion of the role is noted is usually as consultant to other direct service providers, especially--in the rural areas--non-professional and/or volunteer service providers. There is another way of conceptualizing generalist social work practice however, and that is in terms of the attitudinal set of mind about what social phenomena are appropriate concerns for social work intervention. In the rural areas, where the community system can be relatively easily circumscribed and where community systemic relationships retain characteristics of high visibility and susceptibility to scientific scrutiny, a practice approach targeted on the totality of a geographic "community" and containing an inherent focus on "enhancement of the quality of life" is not only more possible than in the complex urban megapolis but more consistent with the comprehensive definition of social work. The generalist social worker assesses, within the framework of the profession's values, social phenomena in all of their systemic ramifications and, based upon that assessment, identifies and intervenes at whatever level is efficient and effective within his resources to bring about the desired social change.

One of the levels of intervention that the rural generalist is called upon to carry out more frequently than his urban counterpart is program development.

I. PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PRINCIPLES

Before proceeding to the principle focus of this paper, rural social work,

---

*This paper was originally presented to the Seminar on "Education for Social Work in the Rural and Small Community", Council on Social Work Education, Indianapolis, Indiana, May, 1973. Other related papers by the same authors are: "The Social Work Ombundsman: A Role of the Rural Agent Practitioner" and "Community Control and the Determination of Professional Role in Rural Mental Health." (published Fall/Winter 1973 Journal of Operational Psychiatry.

it is appropriate to review the generic concept of program development as it appears in the various bodies of professional literature.

No universal definition of program development, nor its corollary, program planning, exists. The definitions vary with the perspective of the definer, the situation in which the definition is to be used, and, often, with the anticipated outcome. But essentially all the definitions are elaborations of the basic steps in scientific methodology. For example, James Cook, a Community Development specialist defines the process as:

> Planning is a human function. It is a social process in which people interact in a systematic manner to increase the rationality of decisions and acts performed in order to accomplish objectives in the future. Planning involves:
> 1) data collection and creation
> 2) analysis,
> 3) synthesis,
> 4) forecasts, and
> 5) evaluations
>
> for the purpose of determining,
> a) conditions desirable for satisfying human needs and,
> b) a scheme for ordering a sequence of activities appropriate for increasing the probabilities of bringing about the desired conditions,
> and the implementation of this scheme.[2]

Another formulation of these same process steps is found in the literature on city planning and program development:

> ...(1) Description and prediction of the organization and relevant factors in the environment; (2) definition of objectives and setting of priorities; (3) development of action programs; (4) implementation; and (5) evaluation and subsequent revision of plans[3].

A third, and more commonly recognized enumeration of these same steps is found in Murray Ross' classic definition of community organization process:

> Community organization is a process by which a community identifies its needs or objectives, order (or ranks) these needs or objectives, develops the confidence and will to work at these needs or objectives, finds the resources (internal and/or external) to deal with these needs or

objectives, take action in respect to them, and in so doing extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practice in the community.[10]

Again, the same process steps couched in different language appear. But if all that program development is remains scientific method, why distinguish it from the other practice activities which also employ the identical progression from data gathering to evaluation? Perhaps the clearest articulation of the difference between intervention and planning is found in Karl Mannheim's Man and Society in an Age of Reconstruction.[6]

Manheim distinguishes between the "radius of action" (intervention) in which the practitioner understands the extent of the causal sequences directly brought about by his initial activity and which remains more or less under his control; and, the "radius of foresight" (planning) in which the practitioner understands the length of the causal chain which can more or less accurately be forecast in a given situation and constantly strives to lengthen that chain through application of professional technology. Both employ scientific methodology but the time-space focus of intervention differs. Program development uses process to define long-range goals and strategies and to design systems to attain those goals.

If one assumes, then, program development is both scientific process and goal-time focus, is there anything which distinguishes social work program development from other planning efforts? We would contend that a social worker's approach to program development is unique but that uniqueness is derived from the characteristic value set of this profession, not the process utilized. Bartlett points out that any social work activity results from a unique interaction of knowledge,[1] including process and methodology, and values of the profession and worker. Neither is sufficient unto itself to adequately describe a social work intervention. Thus, program planning carried out by social workers incorporates and operationalizes characteristic values such as client self-determination, partnership, right to help in time of need, etc. The specific impact on the techniques of program development are seen in the guidelines for action which hold that no program is to be imposed on a client population. In fact, the success of a program is predicated upon the client system not only having the final authority to accept or reject intervention but to be actively engaged in the formulation of the plan. Rights and duties reside with both change agent and client system and the appropriate relationship between them is a contract which specified the role and function of each. Since the focus is on helping, the limits of data gathering are defined by the needs of implementation, and the pursuit of "knowledge to know" is left to other disciplines.

II. IMPACT OF THE RURAL CONTEXT ON THE DYNAMICS OF PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Application of planning principles in the rural context presents distinctive challenges to the social worker, particularly if he is a newcomer on the rural scene. In attempting to familiarize himself with contextual differences through the professional literature, he will be impressed with the emphasis on the relative lacks/limitations of the rural community as opposed to the urban area. Limitations in housing, quality education, recreational and employment opportunities, social mobility, availability of goods and services, transportation, and wages and salaries are usually documented. Cultural solidarity and historical continuity are more pronounced in the rural context, if only because physical mobility of residents is less. In the professional sphere, isolation from the traditional supervisory hierarchy and from the stimulation afforded by colleagues are described as additional considerations affecting practice.

In program planning and development, the implication of these descriptions appears as a professional bias toward underestimating the nature of a rural community in several important dimensions: 1) the concern of the citizenry for human needs; 2) the sophistication and knowledge of the rural resident about organization for provision for human needs; 3) the extent and efficacy of existing natural service delivery systems; and 4) the readiness and/or willingness of the community to change.

In addition to the extence of a pre-set bias, the new social worker faces a series of other potential pitfalls. For example, other errors arise from the data collection and assessment process. Access to the essential data for accurate community analysis with reference to planning is complicated by the community stereotype of the professional social worker. The rural community is familiar with a concept of a professional as a person who has mastered a highly specialized body of knowledge and skills and who applies that specialty independent of the client-consumer's active participation as, for example, the doctor, lawyer, minister in his role of preacher of the gospel, and eligibility-determining welfare worker. The social work hallmark of contract/partnership with the client-consumer throughout the helping process is an alien relationship with a "professional" though not at all inconsistent with interpersonal relationships in other rural community endeavors. For the program developer however, partnership with and engagement of the community as part of the action system to effect human services provision is mandatory. Until the social worker has established role credibility within that value construct however, the community views him within their stereotype of "professional"

and reacts accordingly. Because the professional "knows what he is doing" the community relies on his direction of data collection procedures. If he doesn't ask about specific system linkages or resources, these must be irrelevant to the planning process.

Another complication in effective use of the program planning process is the position of community gatekeepers in relation to the rural community power structure. The social worker is accustomed to assessing existing human service resources in terms of formal agencies and organizations. The administrative representatives of these bodies appear the logical sources for data leading to assessment and hypothesis formulation about needs, problems, actual and potential resources in the rural community. Thus, the welfare director, ministers, school officials, public health personnel, are often viewed as "knowing" the dynamics of the rural community. Not considered is the fact that their status as "professionals" is dependent upon protecting their domain from intrusion by the citizenry. The concept of citizen participation in planning does not conform to their stereotype of the professional function. Further, a vested interest in program planning that would relieve their overload of direct service responsibility contains a bias potentially handicapping to the planning process. When primacy in planning is reserved for the visible gatekeepers of the rural community, rather than the representatives of diverse community systems, the new program is likely to have limited influence in solving rural problems. Remediation of individual dysfunctioning, provision of tangible services to individuals and families is often the only commitment of the community gatekeepers. Community systemic change, and enhancement of the quality of life focus in planning is too abstract and distant to compel their participation. Is this phenomena all that different from the urban scene? Perhaps the difference, is that the nature of the rural community offers more hope of realization of the latter type of planning because of its distinguishable boundaries and fewer systems to negotiate.

Assessment of the natural service delivery systems in the rural area is another critical variable in the program planning process. These systems abound: the retired nurse in the town of 300 who operates a visitation and routine nursing service for aged and ill homebound patients within a 20 mile radius of her home; the prominent couple in a predominantly Catholic community who act as a referral and information center for family counseling, pregnancy and psychiatric problems, drawing on a variety of formal and informal, rural and urban resources for their referrals. Community gatekeepers know of the existence of these informal systems, utilize them as casefinding or referral resources but preclude identification of them to the "outsider" in the planning process. Status con-

siderations and failure to appreciate the sophistication of the system account for its omission from an inventory of rural resources. These phenomena have the essential characteristics of a social system, however; structural and functional interdependency of its parts, indefineable boundaries, supra- and sub-system relationships. Aspects of social agencies and organizations are discernible in eligibility criteria and referral and screening procedures of some of these systems. A blend of knowledge and values consistent with social work practice is evident in some systems where the reward structure for the caregivers is not dependent upon the gratitude offered by the client-consumer but is lodged in a supra-system, e.g., a church or civic/social organization which accords public recognition and support to the enterprise and high status in the systemic network to the caregiver.

Power considerations relevant to citizen participation in the planning process presents another assessment obstacle. In a rural community, the convergence of multiple social roles in a single individual is endemic to the community's organization. The school principal may be the dominant political party chairman, a small businessman, the officer of several civic clubs, the relative of elected governmental officials, etc. His membership in a number of community sub-systems provides communication linkage among them. However, the potency of his influence is not determinable from this role inventory alone. Frequently, the "hidden power" sources in a rural community are the most potent, and the most difficult to identify. The fact that a local physician, who appears partially senile and dangerously inattentive to his patients symptoms, is heavily patronized and appointed to public medical posts may not reflect lack of other medical resources but rather provides a revealing clue to a source of true power. The investigator should not be surprised to learn that he is a large landholder, founder and endower of the only community hospital and community college, and stockholder in local financial institutions. The task of identifying function linkages among community sub-systems versus dysfunctional linkages is rendered difficult because of the preponderance of examples like the foregoing. If the planning process was focused on the health care delivery system, exclusion of the above kinds of data would certainly lead to erroneous conclusions about the source of the problem. The failure to find concerned allies among other medical personnel or the college faculty might lead to a hypothesis of apathy toward the quality of medical care available in the community. The failure to perceive the homeostatic balance among community sub-systems and to take it into account in determining problems and needs drastically affects the program planning process and outcome.

If the worker knows what it is he is searching for, data gathering and data sources for the foregoing types of information is not exceedingly complex.

Much is already public information, available in community records and historical documents. However, access to these kinds of data is more readily attainable through community leaders who are willing to join their efforts with the social worker toward community systemic change. Engagement of the community in a contract for social change requires professional credibility in the role of change agent. Competence, discretion, commitment of the worker will be closely scrutinized and evaluated in order to assess credibility. Again, the role of generalist, the social worker has ample opportunity to demonstrate these qualities in a variety of role functions which, reciprocally allow the gradual accumulation of the required data for effective program development. Thus, because of the unique characteristics and interdependencies of major systems in rural areas, the role of program developer is rendered more efficient and effective when conceptualized as a sub-role of the generalist than as a specialized function, undertaken in isolation from the direct service roles.

To carry out effective program development in a rural context, the planner must evaluate the potential impact of his planning on local community systems. There is tragic evidence in many rural communities of the imposition of a regionally "packaged" service delivery system which co-opted or impeded functioning of natural systems. The emphasis must be upon developing horizontal system linkages not simply on improving upon or building anew the generally preexisting vertical linkages with extra-community delivery systems, i.e., linking the welfare office and school is of greater concern than linking the welfare office to its state department.

Warren notes that:

> No local unit, no matter how strongly integrated in an extra-community system, can function long in complete disregard of the impact which its own behavior makes on other units in the locality.[12]

Vail adds the contention that bolstering the support of community caregivers is the most efficient and potentially most effective means of providing service in rural areas,[11] and the Kiesler[4] model of indirect service in the community mental health field is also consistent with this formulation. All of the foregoing positions are consistent, in fact mandated, by the social work value of self-determination.

III. EDUCATION CONTENT FOR RURAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

One is tempted to posit the rural program developer as the "Renaissance

man: and dismiss this consideration of content with the simple admonition that the student will never be adequately prepared by a degree program, bachelor or master's, with all of the knowledge and skills required, so just teach everything you can about human needs and social work in the allotted time and impress on the student that he really is ill-prepared and professional education is, after all, a lifetime job. This is a tempting answer to the question of content and one we will try to avoid!

Before commencing on enumeration of specific knowledge, skills and attitudes associated with rural program development, it would be well to stipulate the obvious; namely, that as in any valid expression of social work intervention, knowledge of and ability to utilize relationship and scientific methodology is a sine qua non. The relationship skills demanded of a program developer include all of those associated with the clinical roles but go beyond them to include other power and status dimensions in which the programmer frequently operates. It is one facet of professional relationship to intervene with the poor, uneducated assistance recipient, quite another to enlist the active support of the local banker-politician. The use of process steps in scientific methodology is particularly crucial to program development, not only because they constitute its essence, as noted above, but because of the tendency of social workers to abandon scientific process in program development. The social worker who would never jump to a treatment plan without a detailed bio-psycho-social diagnosis will not infrequently advocate a "canned" program based on only the sketchiest assumption of a service delivery gap.

The knowledge requirements for program development lean heavily on the curriculum segment traditionally referred to as "social environment". Essential for the aspiring program developer is social systems theory and the social dynamics of communities. On most campuses this is found in sociology and/or rural sociology in acceptable course form. However, rarely is the application of that knowledge to intervention stressed, and so it falls back on the social work faculty to integrate the elements of several behavior science courses and to operationalize them as a framework for and components of assessment. The formulations of Lippit, Watson and Westley[5] and more recently Pincus and Minahan,[6] are noteworthy examples. A sub-ingredient worthy of special mention is the study of power. Not only are naive conceptions of power the base of program development the dynamics of community power in the rural area but are also susceptible to analysis as noted in the previous section.

Another substantive knowledge area of particular relevance to the program developer is the nature of formal and informal organization including the material on group dynamics. Though the urban worker needs this knowledge as well, he usually is in an already existing organizational environment

and his focus is manipulation of the target system. His rural counterpart is frequently called to design and construct the organization to deliver services as well as intervene in existing systems. In addition, much of the consultation service required of the rural worker directs itself toward increasing the functioning of a wide variety of human services systems. While it would be manifestly impossible to educate for the specific intracacies of schools, churches, city and county governments, the common denominator of all is found in group and organizational dynamics.

As with knowledge, the skill areas are multiple and only some of the more salient are mentioned here. A crucial skill is the ability to conduct broad-gauge systemic analysis including demographic, ecological, cultural and historical analysis as well as assessment of systems linkage functions and supra-system relationships. This requires not only the foundation knowledge alluded to above and the ability to conduct detailed action research, but a mental set of inquiry which does not accept pre-determined subject boundaries nor exclude any data as irrelevant. In rural program development, the arena of assessment is the total environment and the occasion is every activity, professional and personal.

Skills in differentially determining and carrying out role appropriate to the particular situation and phenomena addressed and in simultaneously engaging in multi-level role functions is a major skill component for the programmer. The repertoire of roles which the program developer must call upon and be able to exercise is vast, irrespective of urban or rural context. However, the flexibility as well as ability to differentiate appropriate roles quickly is even more complex for the rural worker who carries more than the program development specialty. The rural generalist must be prepared to be utilizing an appropriate planning role one moment and successively assume clinical and therapeutic roles the next.

Skills in brokering, mediating, advocating and negotiating systemic hierarchies are also basic. Sub-functions or skills such as public speaking, radio and television interviewing are frequently used talents of theprogram developer that flow from the community-as-target-system concept.

A specific set of planning skills is also required. Among these are the ability to write programs, construct and justify budgets, organize and manage volunteer work staffs, and design and execute evaluation measures.

The attitudinal set basic to effective social work program planning, as noted in previous sections, is a firm commitment to the client-community as having the right and the responsibility to determine its own needs, problems, objectives and means of achieving objectives. This attitude must permeate all professional activity with any individual, group or organizational sub-

system of the community.

Necessary for any social worker but worthy of mention in the rural context because of the unavoidable independence in practice, is an appreciation of an ideological commitment to the concept of professional role as having inherent responsibilities and obligations that transcend the obligations to any specific agency/employer. Truly autonomous practice is developed only within this attitudinal set.

A visionary attitude applied toward all community suggestions and planning hypotheses allows for creative consideration and modification of potentially useful but presently "unworkable" ideas.

IV. EDUCATIONAL METHODOLOGY

The educational preparation of the generalist social worker requires adjustments in traditional teaching methodologies. The long-standing dichotomy between "knowledge" as embodied in the didactic classroom and "practice" isolated in practicum experiences is even less functional in preparing the generalist. Integration of foundation and practice-knowledge and activity skills require devices such as team teaching, field based seminars, modular course construction, and instructor demonstration. A renewed emphasis on collaborative attitudes is needed, not only among faculty but system wide. The apprenticeship model, the student as disciple, allow for neither the transmission of required knowledge nor acculturation to the generalist role.

Because of the high degree of professional risk involved in program planning, the structure and progression of the student's learning must encourage motivation to risk while concomitantly reducing the probability of non-success.

Classroom course design can flow from this principle although it has been more routinely applied to the practicum field experience in social work curricula.

The introduction of the student to discrete skills which flow from didactic material, either foundation or practice theory, can be begun as a component of classroom instruction through the use of laboratory and workshop simulation techniques. This allows the instructor to isolate one configuration of specific activities, skills or knowledge for the student's concentrated attention without having to manipulate all the variables that would be inherent in the real community planning situation, as for example, focussing on the function of committee aide to a chairman

of a Council of Aging without concurrently having to address the problems of selection, structure and organizational interrelatedness.

A further consideration for the classroom teacher in determining content and methodology is the fact that the exercise of program planning techniques is most often totally foreign to the student. The students frequently have a frame of reference for work with individuals, families and small groups based upon their prior life experience even if they have had no professional experience. Consequently, the classroom instructor is constantly faced with the problem of making program development "real." To do this requires the ample use of detailed case examples. The paucity of program planning materials in written and audio-visual form forces the teacher to create such from his own practice experience. Perhaps it should be noted here that a principle of program development already pointed out, namely adaptation of the process to locale, applies as well to the teaching methodology employed. Thus, case records, examples, illustrations, etc., which are drawn from the school's geographic locale are much more effective in enhancing the "realness" of the educational content.

Skills that can be taught in a field-based seminar or laboratory component of a practice theory course, that are crucial to the potential planner, include: 1) grant writing; 2) familiarity with the techniques and use of mass media; 3) community resource structuring and the technology thereof (e.g., committee process, elements of staff role to a committee); 4) writing of program documents, annual reports, progress reports, proposals of hyrotheses options; 5) action research technology. The customary approach to teaching these skills is a natural outgrowth of the requirements of the interventive process in the field. This is both inefficient and ineffective use of instructor time and ignores the risk principle previously enunciated.

The ability to conceptualize and to systematically apply practice principles and scientific methodology to every professional endeavor must be stressed universally throughout the curriculum. Practicum is more than "experience" and to design a field insturction model which logically facilitates education for program development within generalist concept, certain principles must adhere:

1. The field instructor serves as role model of middle management

2. Accountability to client-consumer (community), supra-systems, peer group, and the specific procedures for maintenance of accountability is built into field unit structure.

3. Autonomy of practice and its essential ingredients must be integral to the field experience. The rudiments of teaching autonomous practice include demonstration, self-assessment, learning plans, pairing in task accompment, peer orientation/socialization/acculturation process, continous use of evaluative techniques for assessing consumer, peer, supervisory and supra-system feedback on performance.

4. Opportunity for collaboration with other professionals, other disciplines, consultants, etc., is provided.

5. Observational and analytic opportunities of sponsoring agency decision-making processes and analogous opportunities in community decision-making processes are made available.

6. The field instructor demonstrates the role of professional learner on the assumption that theprogram developer role requires continuous professional learning regarding the community in the planning process.

A field instructional model predicated upon the above principles would encompass the following:

1. Assignments are directed to diverse target systems, with flexibility in the parameters of interventive action, i.e., where the student stops in his systemic interventions is not confined to the initial problems definition but is the product of the progression of successful interventions, and yet the assignments must be discrete enough so that the student is able to see the impact of his intervention and obtain the necessary reinforcement. Assignments will naturally require a coalition of professional effort in which the instructor is colleague.

2. Supervision predicated in this model is substantially different from that found in the apprenticeship model, since both the instructor and the student are actively engaged in the same intervention and evaluation of performance and suggestion for improvement are mutual responsibilities. The instructor's performance is as subject to critical analysis as the student's. The specific benefit of this

procedure is that authority of regulation (grading) is rapidly supplanted by authority of competence (observed performance).

3. Types of unit relationships that develop in this collegial model differ markedly from the apprenticeship. Openness of unit members to critical appraisal from each other, camaraderie, protectiveness toward the group, identification of "differentness" from their peers in other field units, respect for each other and for the instructor and high morale--all seem to flow from the mutuality of risk-taking inherent in the model.

4. The principle resource requirement for this practicum model is a sympathetic organizational environment. There is little doubt that the non-bureaucratic organization with its higher degree of flexibility and less rigidly defined roles and procedures makes the instructional task easier. However, even in traditional structures, program development practicum can be successfully carried out if the agency has both a commitment to innovation and to sustaining the change effort over time. There are overriding ethical considerations about beginning a long-term process, for both the school and the agency, which must be carefully weighed before assignments are agreed upon.

Because program development often requires specialized knowledge and skills, a commitment from both univeristy-wide and school-wide resources is required. The instructor should be assured of necessary consultation.

Instructional arrangement for this kind of practicum require cognizance of the time-demand dimension of program development in which an erratic schedule is assumed. The traditional 8:00 to 5:00, two days per week field instruction schedule is unrealistic and the parent institution must be willing to make necessary adjustments.

5. Administrative support has already been alluded to but is worth special mention. Not only must the host agency be committed to a process of planned change but the educational institution must be prepared to support both the process and professional risk-taking inherent in program development. This may, for example, require a year-round field instruction program to insure continuity of effort to a program, once begun. Because of the unique relationships noted above, school administrators need to be aware of and pre-

pared to deal with intr-school competition and jealousy. Flexibility in student academic program must be provided for to allow effective utilization of university-wide teaching resources, for much of what the student program developer needs to know will be found in other academic departments, often as apparently unrelated as agriculture or geography.

V. CONCLUSION

Before concluding this description of education for rural program development, we would be remiss if we did not point out one somewhat self-serving consideration. The benefits accruing from the curriculum formulation above should not be evaluated solely in terms of the student learning outcomes. The visible service resulting from the educational effort demonstrates to the community both the credibility of the profession and the efficacy of professional education, and by so doing engenders the much needed public support to continue social work education.

* * * * * *

References

1. Bartlett, Harriett M. 1970. The Common Base of Social Work Practice. National Association of Social Workers, New York.

2. Cook, James B. 1969. Everyone has a Stake in Community Planning. University of Missouri-Columbia Extension Division, Columbia, Mo.

3. Ginsberg, Leon H. 1971. Rural social work. In Morris, Robert et al. (eds.), Encyclopedia of Social Work, Vol. II. National Association of Social Workers, New York.

4. Kissler, Frank. 1965. Is this psychiatry? In Godston, E.E. (ed.) Concepts of Community Psychiatry. Public Health Services Washington, D.C.

5. Lippitt, Ronald and Watson, J. and Westley, B. 1958. The Dynamics of Planned Change. Harcourt, Brace and Court, Co., New York.

6. Mannheim, Karl. 1941. Man and Society in an Age of Reconstruction Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., New York.

7. Mermelstein, J. and Sundet, P. 1972. Community control and the determination of professional role in rural mental health, A paper presented to Southwest Regional Meeting, American Ortho-psychiatric Association, Galveston, Tx.

8. Parker, John K. 1971. Administrative planning. In Banovetz, James M. (ed), Managing the Modern City. International City Management Association, Washington, D.C.

9. Pincus, Allen and Minahan, Anne. 1970. Toward a model for teaching a basic first-year course in methods of social work practice. In Ripple, Lilian (ed), Innovations in Teaching Social Work Practice. Council on Social Work Education, New York.

10. Ross, Murray. 1955. Community Organization. Harper and Row, New York.

11. Vail, D.J. 1968. Mental health services in rural America. In Pullen, M.W. (ed), Development of Mental Health Services in Sparsely Populated Rural Areas. Program Development Conference of 24 Western States, Phoenix, Arizona.

12. Warren, Roland. 1963. The Community in America. Rand, McNally and Co., Chicago, Illinois

DELIVERING SOCIAL SERVICES IN RURAL AREAS

Edward B. Buxton

Social work in rural areas has been given little attention in past years. The emphasis has been on urban problems, and skills have been developed essentially to deal with these. In most cases, public welfare agencies have been the source of initial social work service in rural communities and public attitudes toward public welfare have lingered on to be associated with social services. In this paper I will outline the limitations which apply to the development of social service programs in rural areas and indicate what I feel must be done if community social problems are to be effictively handled.

My observations are based on experience in Wisconsin with its county social service agencies. Changes may come with separation of aid and services or a state or Federally administered program. Whatever the new organizational structure, I foresee some kind of local office attempting to deliver social services in rural areas where few others are available.

A word is in order about my use of the word "rural". It is possible to work from the census definition, but this is rigid, and the so-called urban area of a small town may react quite differently than an urban city. Such a definition does not take into consideration the fact that what a city dweller considers to be rural may constitute an urban metropolis to someone from a village or farm. Or a concentration of large population may serve a wide geographic area in business and social services, so that it is difficult to imagine an area which is thinly populated that is completely cut off from urban influences and services.

A possible criteria would be the domination in an area by agriculture or mineral extraction. However the term "agri-business" symbolizes rather well the blending that is taking place, so that agriculture no longer of necessity means small operations, or traditional thinking, or a thin distribution of population.

With these considerations in mind, "rural" is used here as reflecting an area which lags behind in population per square mile, in education, in variety of experience and finally, in the power to control its own destiny, compared to larger urban areas.

The author is an Assistant Professor at the Center for Continuing Education and Community Action for Social Service, University of Wisconsin-Extension, Madison. The article is reprinted with the permission of The Board of Regents of the University of Wisconsin and the American Public Welfare Association.

p. 53 blank

To the extent that communities in so-called urban areas have similar problems, rural and urban social work practice would clearly be similar. I strongly believe that much in social work practice is applicable to all areas. But there is real merit in those recent attempts to point out key differences if those who practice in rural areas are to be able to develop other skills and put them to use.

Perhaps the first problem presented to a social worker in a rural setting is the erroneous assumption that nothing is happening in rural areas; that because there are few people or buildings in one place, life is simple. As Leon Ginsberg, in an article concerned with education of workers for social work in rural settings, points out:

> Nevertheless, a smaller scale of life does not imply simplicity. Rural communities are often as sociologically complex as urban communities. Many of their characteristics may be based upon little-remembered but nevertheless influential historical events focused on family conflicts, church schisms, and a variety of other occurrences which may deserve the status of legends."[1]

In a real sense, the points made in the rest of this paper will refer to influences and conflicts involved in rural communities, so that the whole paper represents a further enlargement on the theme that the worker needs to be prepared to deal with a complex situation, and that social work in rural areas may be just as difficult as that done elsewhere.

Another problem social workers face is that they are likely to be rather visibly different from the people around them. This is likely to affect both community and worker. Young workers from northern Wisconsin have told me how they feel set apart by a college education and a new car (even though the car may be mortgaged to the limit). Dress and grooming are further distinguishing factors, though these can be minimized if the worker chooses. The carrying of certain kinds of notebooks as I made my rounds in one small community brought forth comments which indicated that I had unwittingly set myself apart. Youth itself may be a separating quality in an area where most of the young people leave for the city. A further influence is the feeling within the worker himself. One experienced social worker, accustomed to the anonymity of a large city, described to me her feeling of being alone--exposed-- in walking in a small town where everyone obviously knew that she was an outsider.

A final separating influence-- one which I hope social workers would have-- is that they think differently from the citizens of the community. They should

be more acutely aware of human distress; they should be able to sense community attitudes and functioning; and they should feel a sense of urgency about solving social problems which most citizens, rural or urban, take for granted.

I am not arguing that being different prevents social workers from being effective. I do suggest that a worker must be aware of these differences as they relate to people. They have implications for what a worker and agency can do, and for what community people can do better for themselves. This must not be forgotten.

Assuming that the worker has found a "place" in the community and has developed working relationships with clients and community leaders, the perceptive worker is likely in time to decide that some community change is required if clients are to really be helped, and if others are to avoid needing services in the first place.

It is a truisim that to help a client we must start where he is. Seldom, however, have I seen social workers follow this procedure in terms of community structure. There is a temptation to start with the client's problem and the worker's set of values in an attempt to change the community. The result can be anything from frustrating to disastrous. It is at this point that a worker may find that the community regards social problems and social behavior from a very different reference system than that of the social work profession. Many of us have occasionally viewed our role and that of agency in ways that almost opposed the expectations of our employers without ever really understanding the degree of difference. This can also occur in terms of a worker's relationship to a community. An experiment aimed at influencing attitudes toward the mentally ill, which was begun in a western Canadian community in 1951 in order that more patients could be successfully returned from mental hospitals, is a good example. As a result of this effort the authors reported:

> "We had been unable to effect any evident change in attitudes toward the mentally ill. Attitudes toward us, on the other hand, had undergone a very evident change. The people of Prairie Town, initially friendly and cooperative, had become increasingly aloof as the months went by, despite every effort on our part to be tactful and friendly. From apathy they resorted to withdrawal; and when our interviewers returned to Prairie Town at the end of six months, to administer the retest, they were dismayed at the outright antagonism they encountered. Our well intentioned efforts to alter attitudes had apparently produced side effects that we had not bargained for."[2]

In describing why the well planned and comprehensive campaign to influence the attitude of the local community failed, the authors sum up the reasons which they believed contributed to that failure. It seems to me that the program described and the reaction to it are strikingly similar to programs designed to inform local citizens about welfare and deviance in many of our American counties.

PRESERVING COMMUNITY WELL BEING

In summing up they stated:

> "By informing the people that many mental hospitals were in fact overcrowed, inadequately staffed,and maltherapeutic, we were destroying the device people used to assuage their guilt over having exiled their relatives. If people accepted our assertion that mental hospitals were undesirable or even harmful, they would have to face their own inner tensions of guilt and shame, feelings that had been kept in check by their motivated evaluation of the mental hospital as a "good place."
>
> In short, Prairie Town's pattern of beliefs and attitudes toward mental illness was not merely a patchwork of half truths, fallacies, and inconsistency, as appeared from a first inspection of the interview data: it played an important part in preserving the well being of the community and the peace of mind and self-esteem of the average individual."[3]

The message of the report is painfully clear; the beliefs of a community are organized into a workable, interrelated pattern which fulfills a social need in preserving the well being of the majority. Attempts to change beliefs or practices can cause dislocation, anxiety, and resistance against the change makers.

I am not aware of any agency which works primarily with the poor and the mildly deviant which has much prestige or respect. Such an agency may be viewed as necessary, however, if its clients are dealt with "properly," quietly, so as not to disturb the community as a whole. If the experience in Prairie Town is true for other communities, any agency or worker who implies that welfare recipients are little different from other people--that they are inadequately cared for, that their problems stem partly from the failure of the social system--is threatening a deep-seated need to isolate deviants, to justify "motivating them" by low payments. It leads ordinary citizens to deny local social problems.

So, the more an agency emphasizes some things the more unpopular it may become, and "little changes" that professional social workers propose can have broad implications in the value system of the local community. The "little changes" may in reality relect the gulf that four to six years of education and contact with a pluralistic society can produce. Most important, they may relect knowing the clients as human beings instead of stereotypes.

Carried to its logical conclusion then, I would suggest that a local public welfare agency and its clients represent an affront to all that is held to be of value in many communities: self-sufficiency, independence, thrift, and family loyalty. After all, the department was "thrust" in by Federal and state action; it reflects outside values, and it is usually staffed by outsiders of a higher educational level than most residents. This explains in part why we can talk about how few are the employable men on the rolls, how low the amount of fraud, and walk away with the feeling that the listeners still view recipients as strong, lazy males who will not work.

There are other problems which face the social worker in a rural area. These have to do with those leaders, formal or otherwise, who reflect local values more specifically as they determine how money is to be spent and what support the community will give to new programs.

In Community Power Structure,[4] Floyd Hunter described the power distribution in a large urban area. Most social workers are familiar with the term "power structure" as a group of leaders who operate unofficially but with greater power than elected officials. We may forget to think of rural communities in these terms or we may regard this leadership group as of concern only to administrators of agencies. But most small communities do indeed have an informal power structure; one that is often not easy to pinpoint. On the other hand, the social worker in a small community who is alert is in a unique position to learn who does make the basic decisions. For example, the worker may contact town chairmen and local businessmen about relief, about complaints concerning clients and about the availability of jobs or housing. The response of formal leadership--their willingness to make decisions and the people to whom they refer the worker--may give valuable leads as to where real power is held. It is also fairly easy to find out who serves on boards of directors of financial institutions, as well as who employs the most people. In many ways the small size of this group, the fact that they can be identified, and that can be contacted are distinct advantages. Certainly the attitudes of such persons indicate how a community may react to a new program, and it is useful to know what their interests and dislikes are in determining priorities. My experience has been that influential people may not do much in opposition to a program, but without their sanction many "little people" will not take a stand. Things are ever so much more diffi-

cult without the help of the "power structure."

A particularly important segment of the leadership group are the county boards of supervisors, especially members of boards of social services. A Comment in Small Town and Mass Society describes their value system especially well. The setting is a small community in the state of New York, but the problems and responses seem applicable to most rural areas.

In describing various classes and their attitudes, Vidich and Bensman stated:

> "Neither the businessmen nor the traditional farmers invest expansion capital, and furthermore their de-emphasis of business capital investments of any kind reflects a psychology of scarcity mindedness. The nonexpanding traditional farmers rationalize their emphasis on work rather than on investment by gearing their operations to possible declines in farm prices, wherein their low absolute,but not unit, costs put them in a favorable position for survival. The businessman prefer accumulation to investment; that is, surplus funds are invested in highly liquid assets, particularly local real estate, which places them in a relatively advantageous positions vis-a-vis deflationary movements, but in a disadvantageous position in a rising market and in an expanding economy.
>
> "In the case of the traditional farmers their psychological orientation to work, savings, and investment represents a traditional attitude which was reinforced by the depression of the thirties."[5]

Since most of the board members of rural Wisconsin counties (and I assume this is true elsewhere) are made up of small traditional farmers or small businessmen--many of them retired or near retirment--this description may do much to provide a clearer explanation of why such groups are likely to view the proposal for expanded payments and expanded programs from a very different position than the social workers who propose them. Their whole life experience and training has been to save, to cut back, to expect the worst, and to meet new adversity by working harder. And even if welfare board members are influenced by their director ("brainwashed" is a frequently used term) to want increased programming, they must still persuade other board members, as well as the voters back home, who may also subscribe to a philosophy of scarcity.

Operating on a philosophy of scarcity is not unique to members of the boards. Many of us were brought up in families which did the same thing. There are clear implications for the future of our programs when "rural" thinking of this sort dominates administration. I would certainly make a different presentation to such a board than I would to young executives, expansion-minded farmers, or representatives of organized pressure groups who think in terms of "investing in people"--those who consider welfare as one of the many public subsidies which are given to farmers, business, and various income groups.

"GOOD JOES"

The social worker who yearns for rapid change in a community runs into another problem which is not really unique to rural areas, but which is emphasized by the high visibility common to small towns; the tendency to judge a citizen by his community image. A sheriff may run a poor jail or a nursing home owner may have a deplorable establishment, but if we attack them directly, people who know them as "Good Joes" in other settings rise to their defense. And local community pride is challenged whenever someone (especially an outsider) suggests that all is not well. Vidich and Bensman comment on what they call the system of illusion which, they assert, operates in a small town.

> "But due to the social character of systems of illusions, these dynamic processes in character occur relatively slowly. There is a silent recognition among members of the community that facts and ideas which are disturbing to the accepted system of illusions are not to be verbalized except, perhaps, as we have noted, in connection with one's enemies. Instead, the social mores of the small town at every opportunity demand that only those facts and ideas which support the dreamwork of everyday life are to be verbalized and selected out for emphasis and repetition. People note other people's successes, comment on them with public congratulation and expect similar recognition for themselves. Mutual complimenting is a standard form of public intercourse, while failures and defeats, though known to all, are not given public expression. In this process each individual reinforces the illusions of the other. Only at the intimate level of gossip are discussions of failure tolerated."[6]

Large cities have their own kind of pride, but voices of dissent are not likely to be as lonely as in a small or rural community.

In short, a social worker or a director of a public welfare agency may be challenging local mores by talking about financial needs and the root causes

of social problems in X county, but the failures of the clients and by implication, the agency, are well within the range of accepted subject matter for local gossip in rural settings.

Not only are social workers in rural areas responsible for giving good service to a group which includes many who are social outcasts and have no pressure group to back them, but they are responsible to the taxpayers and leading citizens for the efficient use of their money. While taxpayers are well organized as a pressure group, and are becoming more so, groups organized around the expansion of social services are not as well developed in small towns as they are in urban areas. The parents of retarded children, for example, are too few in number to be effective. Recipients in rural communities are often unwilling to point to themselves as "recipients" or even to break away from the majority value system that holds that recipients should be thankful for whatever they get.

AGENTS OF MASS SOCIETY

The social worker who represents an outside agency may not only be considered an outsider, but he may also be resented as a representative of unpopular and threatening external influences. The director of a local agency is especially likely to find himself in a situation similar to that described by Vidich and Bensman:

> "The school principal reminds the school board that action which it contemplates taking can be done only at the risk of losing state aid. The milk price administrator reminds farmers that the alternative to rejecting the milk price order is no milk price order at all and a return to marketing chaos. The state road commissioner informs the village board that the new state highway must either pass over main street or bypass the village entirely. At this level, those who are involved accept the reality, but respond by resenting the agents and institutions of mass society."[7]

The board of directors of a business is expected to help the president of the organization, but the board of a public social agency often perceives its duty, for a number of reasons, as "holding back" the director. This was illustrated quite clearly in Wisconsin recently when the State Personnel Board was quoted in a newspaper article relating to a decision upholding the firing of a director:

> "The legislative rationale for lay boards is to afford a

> balance against the activism of "professionals" and career people in any field. From recent experiences we have found that the Legislature does not regard this as an outmoded concept."[8]

In summary then, I have pointed out that the social worker in a rural area may be set apart by age, dress, education, and value system from the community with which he is working--that because of increased visibility these factors are likely to seem more important in rural areas. To press for change in community structure, instead of only in the client, may threaten local income, local mores, and the elaborate systems which all of us use to justify present and past behavior. We may challenge time-ingrained value systems and come to represent in local eyes the outside mass society which is indeed limiting the freedom of local communities to control their own destinies.

This portrait is somewhat depressing, as is the condition of social work in many areas--rural and otherwise. But there are workers who are more successful than others. There are communities where certain social problems have been dealt with more effectively than in others. To the extent that there are limitations to what public agencies can do and how much they can spend, we must look to other sources of help.

The following suggestions therefore, are based on my own experiences and to a great extent, on programs with which I am familiar. Since I am most familiar with social work in rural areas, my suggestions are focused mainly on such agencies.

1. We should remind ourselves and the community that ultimate responsibility for solving community social problems lies with the whole community, not just the social worker and agency. After all, social workers are limited in numbers and their capacity to effect change. With this in mind, we must devise ways of informing citizens of local problems and what is being done about them. Many of us voice acceptance of this principle, but there is a test for whether the agency really means it. If agencies are willing to set aside time, even under pressure, to inform the community of local problems, and in reporting on the progress in dealing with them, then they pass the test. If a worker or an agency "doesn't have time" to do this, then the agency has accepted the popular assumption that ultimate responsibility rests with the worker.

2. We must work on the assumption that we are not alone in our concerns. It is an illusion, it seems to me, to feel that social workers are isolated in their commitment to help people in trouble. This is a tempting conclusion, especially easy to come by if we have narrow community contacts. The growing

ranks of volunteers belie this, however, and for years effective workers have enlisted local leaders to make suggestions and to give leadership. The utilization of volunteers and advisory groups is imperative if a worker is to recruit enough help to deal with local problems.

3. We must be sensitive to local concerns and local etiquette in devising action projects. Terms like "social action" can be frightening in some communities. Our perspective on what needs doing may not coincide with that of concerned, sensitive, local leaders. Often a compromise is possible, or the organization developed to do one thing can later do something else. Involving citizens as volunteers and advisors helps to alert them to local deficiencies in a way which allows them to move toward our concerns, and permits them to voice the problem themselves.

4. Service clubs are often the way in which things get done in American communities. These organizations tend to prefer short-term, visible projects. Social workers have frequently been too busy to join or work with such groups, but those agencies which have worked with them have benefited through mutual support and understanding. Rural social workers must, I believe, work closely with service clubs and learn to break down needed tasks into components that such organizations can deal with.

5. We may have to look to the agriculture extension model of operating, wherein the agent operates as a middleman between the centers of knowledge (such as universities) and those requiring service (agricultural groups). The rural social worker should come to have a broad knowledge of community problems. If he is successful in his community relations effort, he will be contacted for suggestions. No one can be a specialist in all things. Local resources should be contacted as well as colleges and universities, where faculty who can be helpful may be found.

6. A special interest group is one which works hardest on its own programs and knows its problems best. Despite the negative feeling in rural areas against clients rights groups, I feel strongly that they must be encouraged. I do have questions concerning the ability and willingness of local individuals to organize. We need to know more about how to help such groups as the aging, families of youth who have problems, and those of low income.

7. We should learn to take advantage of local systems of communication and self-help that may still exist in rural areas, instead of viewing them as negatives. Before social workers arrived on the scene, local individuals frequently knew about the problems and had attempted to help people in trouble. In the past, family members or neighbors dealt with such problems alone. Social workers in rural areas should learn to encourage existing support

systems instead of fighting them. One approach is outlined in The Day Care Neighbor Service: A Handbook for the Organization and Operation of a New Approach to Family Day Care;[9] "Older Natural Helpers: Their Characteristics and Patterns of Helping" in Public Welfare, Fall 1971[10] describes another.

We have seen that social services in rural areas have usually developed exclusively as an aspect of public welfare. This condition still exists in many instances, so that social services and public welfare are often viewed in the same way. I have pointed out why rural leaders and citizens may have negative feelings about any program which requires more money for social services and why they are not likely to change quickly, if at all.

In view of this resistance to change, I believe that social workers in rural areas need to reemphasize the responsibility of communities to deal with their own problems. Such an emphasis involves informing the community of problems and related programs, recruiting volunteers, starting where the community is, involving service clubs whenever possible, helping the community find and use outside consultation, encouraging development of client special interest groups, and learning to use the local, existing system of communication and self-help.

---

[1]Leon H. Ginsberg, "Education for Social Work in Rural Settings," Social Work Education Reporter (September, 1969).

[2]John Cumming and Elaine Cumming, "Mental Health Education in a Canadian Community. Health, Culture and Community, ed. Benjamin D. Paul (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1955.) p. 45

[3]Ibid, pp 63-64

[4]Floyd Hunter, Community Power Structure (New York: Doubleday Anchor Books) 1963

[5]Arthur J. Vidich and Joseph Bensman, Small Town in Mass Society (Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1968.) pp 72-73

[6]Ibid., p. 303

[7]Ibid., p 294

[8]Milwaukee Journal, Milwaukee, Wisconsin (December 8, 1970)

[9]Alice H. Collins and Eunice L. Watson, The Day Care Neighbor Service: A Handbook for the Organization and Operation of a New Approach to Family Day Care, printed by the Tri-County Community Council in cooperation with the School of Social Work, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon.

[10]Shirley L. Patterson and Esther E. Twente, "Older Natural Helpers: Their Characteristics and Patterns of Helping," Public Welfare (Fall, 1971).400

THE PHILOSOPHY AND INTENT OF THE RURAL SOCIAL SERVICES EDUCATION PROGRAM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE AT MARTIN

Dr. Stanley B. Williams

The Rural Social Services Education program grew out of the need for stronger emphasis on social services in the rural areas of Northwest Tennessee. The University of Tennessee at Martin, through its Sociology and Anthropology Department of the School of Liberal Arts, is undertaking to fill this need through educational means and through the new major of undergraduate education in social welfare. It also provides special educational opportunities for the people presently employed in social service agencies.

The undergraduate social welfare sequence emphasizing rural social services is designed to prepare prospective social workers to provide assistance to those persons residing in rural areas. Helping people to help themselves is the concern of social work.

The Rural Social Services program goals are (1) to upgrade the quality of social services of the rural people of Northwest Tennessee; (2) to provide a source of well qualified undergraduate social workers to staff the social services agencies; (3) to involve the total community in developing a program of social work education; (4) to inform the community of the existing social services so a better degree of coordination of services now provided will occur; (5) to prepare the students for graduate work in a professional school of social work and (6) to prepare the student for an enlightened participation as a citizen in community social welfare activities.

To reach these goals effectively, the University is soliciting the advise and counsel of the Community Advisory Board composed of representatives from the nine counties that make up the Northwest Tennessee area. The Board's principle responsibilities are (1) to advise the Department on the social services needs of rural people and to help initiate the program into the rural communities; (2) to advise the Department on improvement of content of the undergraduate Rural Social Services program; (3) to serve as a contact between the Rural Social Services program staff and the communities in which the members live; (4) to inform the public of the Rural Social Services program; (5) to advise on potential job assignments for graduates of the Rural Social Services program; and (6) to evaluate the Rural Social Services program from time to time and recommend steps to upgrade it.

In recent years, the population of the United States has become increasingly urbanized. This has resulted in an increased educational emphais on urban problems; i.e., slums, housing, jobs, and other urban social services. This situation has created a paucity of educational services for those who wish to render social services to residents of rural America.

Rural social services differ from those in urban areas because the problems dealt with vary in the following ways:

p. 63 blank

URBAN:	RURAL:
1. Problems are concentrated in specific areas of the city, such as slums, ghettos, etc.	1. Problems are dispersed over the the hinterland.
2. Problem solving tends to be a matter of contacting available agencies (clinics, unemployment offices, family service centers, etc.) which deal with specific problems.	2. Problem solving tends to be a matter of creating solutions in the absence of such corrective agencies.
3. There exists an availability of low cost public transportation to aid individuals in contacting various social service agencies.	3. There exists an absence of transportation for many rural residents; thereby, their ability to contact various social service agencies is limited.
4. A higher percentage of the population is literate.	4. Greater possibility of dealing with illiterate clients.
5. Greater availability of jobs for all skill levels.	5. Decline of small farms, producing a surplus of unskilled laborers.
6. Availability of youth-oriented services such as Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boys' Clubs, Juvenile Court, etc.	6. Lack of availability of youth-orieted services.
7. Availability of job-training programs, recreational and cultural opportunities, counseling and guidance centers, mental health facilities, etc.	7. A lack of these services and opportunities in rural areas.
8. Presence of programs dealing specifically with minority group problems.	8. A noticeable absence of such programs.
9. Due to a presence of various specialized facilities, the urban social worker can react to problems as a specialist.	9. As a result of the non-availability of many of these services, the rural social worker must often react to problems as a generalist.
10. A greater integration and coordination of the social welfare services available.	10. Either a complete absence or a lesser degree of such integration and coordination of these social welfare services are available.

IMPLEMENTING A PROGRAM

In implementing an educational program that is emphasizing a rural social service perspective, the Department of Sociology is meeting the challenges set forth by the Undergraduate Social Welfare Manpower Project of the Southern Regional Educational Board by assimilating into the Rural Social Services program the compilation of materials assembled by an SREB Rural Task Force. The department is re-evaluating and revising all social welfare content courses to include in the social welfare sequence a continuity that will reflect the assumptions, objectives, knowledges, skills, values, and roles as delinated by the Rural Task Force.

A full-time rural sociologist is being utilized in the program. He teaches courses in rural sociology and is a member of a teaching team composed of a professional social work educator and area agency supervisor. The rural sociologist will also assist in relating rural sociology principles to all social welfare content courses.

Other objectives of the Rural Social Services program are:

1. To operate a demographic laboratory and develop a demographic research capacity within the program of the Department of Sociology which enhances the ability not only of rural social welfare students, but the ability of political and social systems within this rural area to identify civic and social needs and priorities.

2. To further expand the capacity of the Department of Sociology to incorporate human service placement and practicum opportunities for field experience into health and education. This includes promoting and implementing social services in the administrative structure of health and education institutions within the geographical region of rural Northwest Tennessee.

3. To promote and to encourage a desire on the part of rural public school officials to adapt school social services as an integral part of the school system. It is believed that if this can be accomplished, it would help to reduce the high drop-out rate of pupils from the school system, and, therefore, would help relieve the burden on other social service agencies. It would also provide field placement settings for Rural Social Services students and create job opportunities for students after completing the bachelor of science degree. The drop-out rate is now 10 percent; if this percentage could be reduced through school social services, there also would be additional jobs for the professional school teachers.

4. To integrate the discipline of rural sociology more thoroughly into the social welfare curriculum. This social welfare program broadly referred to as a rural social services program has improvement of social conditions in rural areas as its major goal. Four major factors help to create a tremendous need for improved services in Northwest Tennessee: poverty, migration patterns, inadequate services, and population structure and composition. The members of the Department of Sociology feel that knowledge of rural institutions and people and how they relate to the above factors is a basic thread that should be woven into the social welfare curriculum. An experienced

rural sociologist on the teaching staff will enhance this part of the curriculum.

5. To cultivate and establish field placement settings in low income rural communities. This will be accomplished by the efforts of a black social work educator. She will teach social welfare content courses and work with both black and white students as their supervisor in these settings. She along with the rural sociologist and other members of the teaching staff will conduct joint seminars to help students integrate a broader knowledge of rural social services.

6. To encourage more low income black students to become involved in the rural social services program. This will be accomplished by making more knowledge available to these potential students about the academic program as well as financial assistance through high school counselors and through those assigned to field placement settings in these low income rural areas.

7. To establish a block placement program in more rural areas in conjunction with medical social service, psychiatric social services, and school social services. This block placement program should be ready for implementation by June, 1973.

8. To encourage a greater degree of continuity between the two-year program and the four-year programs in the State of Tennessee. Also, to encourage more continuity between the baccalaureate programs and the graduate programs in the State.

9. To promote and encourage a greater degree of cooperation between the Rural Social Services program at The University of Tennessee at Martin and other schools of higher learning in the State of Tennessee and adjoining states where a social welfare program exists. There are many possibilities of joint participation that would enrich the quality of all schools involved.

RURAL SOCIAL SERVICES NEEDS IN NORTHWEST TENNESSEE

Everette N. Sanders
Rural Sociologist and Assistant Professor

Why is emphasis so strongly placed on rural social services in the undergraduate Rural Social Services program offered by the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at the University of Tennessee at Martin? To answer this question, enlightenment on the social service situations and conditions in rural areas will be attempted. These situations and conditions will include such items as the lag in social services in Northwest Tennessee, the communication of social service needs to the rural disadvantaged, and the qualities and requirements of an ideal worker in a rural social service program. In the outset, reference is made to a paper, "The Philosophy and Intent of the University of Tennessee at Martin's Rural Social Service Education Program" (Williams, 1972). The paper sets out the purpose and objectives of the Rural Social Services program; functions of the Rural Social Services Community Advisory Board; some differences in rural social services as compared to those of urban areas and means of implementing the program.

Conditions in Rural Areas and the Social Service Situation

By looking at dimensions that make an ideal community, we can determine to some degree the quality of living and existing in rural areas as compared to that of urban areas. We refer to a community in terms of economic, social and functional concepts. A rural community thought of in this way represents a good place to live if there are sufficient employment opportunities, adequate education, health, government, consumer, cultural, religious, housing and recreational services. The existence of a sense of community--a sense of mutual trust and involvement in cooperative ventures and activities--is also an important dimension of a quality place to live. While many urban communities do not have all the above dimensions, studies document that far less rural communities have access to them. In either case, the main problems--those dealing with variations in the quality of living--are the same but the degree of problems are different. Some data quoted at a recent National Academy of Science Workshop bear out this fact:

> Thirty percent of the population of the U.S. lives in rural areas, yet 40 percent of the poor (those with low incomes; poor health, education, religious, and recreational services; and poor employment opportunities) lives in rural areas. Yet from a health standpoint, only 12 percent of the nurses, 14 percent of the pharmacists, 8 percent of the pediatricians, and 3 percent of the psychiatrists live in the rural areas. The physician ration, urban/rural, is 13 to 1 (National Academy of Science, 1971).

The first of two facts presented regarding welfare was that rural areas have lower welfare payments and fewer social services than urban areas. The second fact is that the "more rural" sections of those areas have even lower welfare payments and even fewer social services.

Further, much of the rural education, rural churches, rural housing, transportation and government services are considered sub-standard.

In support of the above, Rogers and Burdge (1972:376-491) have this to say:

> There are about thirty-three million poor people in the U.S. of which 13 million are rural poor representing 30 percent of the farm population and 24 percent of the rural non-farm population. There are about twenty milluon urban poor, representing 13 percent of the urban population.

Rural poor live everywhere, but certain regions of the United States stand out, many of which are found in the Appalachian and Ozark Mountains and parts of the South. This includes Northwest Tennessee. Many of th rural poor are Black, Mexican-American, American Indian, and White. Some situations creating rural social problems were reflected in the 1970 Census which showed about 35 percent of all U.S. sub-standard housing is located in rural areas; at the same time, the average rate of unemployment was 5 percent whereas for non-skilled laborers it was 9 percent. One medical doctor was available to every 2,000 t 3,000 persons. Other statistics on rural health conditions were given earlier.

The rural old people share in and add to the problems of rural areas. These people who are 65 years of age or older comprise 10 percent population now. The population as a whole increased by 13 percent between 1960 and 1970 while the number of persons over 65 increased by 30 percent. This age group makes up 14 percent of the population in Northwest Tennessee. In general this age group is identified as being poorly fed, clothed, housed, and illness is common in many cases. Many command little respect even from their own sons and daughters. Rural areas tend to have an older population than urban areas.

The above facts partially reflect a great lag in social services in Northwest Tennessee, as well as in the nation. This is the real basis for the Rural Social Services program at UTM.

Lag in Rural Social Services in Northwest Tennessee

In general, the same conditions as described above exist throughout Northwest Tennessee, an area considered all rural or non-metropolitan. As indicated earlier, circumstances dictate a greater need for services in rural areas than in urban areas. The three major factors that help create a powerful need for improved services in rural America are poverty, inadequate services, and difference in population structure.

Despite the fact that non-metropolitan individuals are essentially the same as their metropolitan counterparts, the non-metropolitan population as a whole differs in several important aspects: they are older, more frequently widowed, more often in poverty, less well-educated and have more children.

According to George L. Wilbur of the University of Kentucky, nearly one out of five non-metropolitan people are poor compared with one in ten among metropolitan residents, despite the fact that the numbers of poor were about the same in each area (Department of Agriculture, 1971:146-158). Services of all kinds are less available to both poor and non-poor in rural areas than in metropolitan areas. Among services less available in rural areas, some of which

have been listed earlier, are medical, clinical, family planning, library, legal aid, welfare counseling, and many others. These discrepancies are paralleled by extreme shortages in facilities and personnel for providing services. Further causes for discrepancies in rural areas stem from the fact that barriers have impeded the process for providing the same services for people in densely settled areas as in urban areas. A sort of inertia has set in which still makes it difficult to extend many services to rural areas--costs per person, sheer logistics, preference of professional personnel. Also, those rural residents most deprived economically, lack the resources to effectively demand what they need.

Very little attention has been given to much needed recreational facilities in rural areas. Northwest Tennessee sentiment is strong for opportunities to increase skills and knowledge. An extended education and training program is an important parallel to an elaborate recreational system.

The need becomes more urgent as expansion of non-work time for older citizens brings greater demand for services. Innovative services to replace the "old folks'home"--health, housing, financial, psychological and social needs--are clearly needed. The older persons strongly need counseling programs that help prepare in advance years of non-work, social justice, and legal aid.

To cope with the social lag in rural areas, two basic strategies are suggested:

1. A catch-up strategy so all basic services in rural areas can be brought up to date with metropolitan areas.
2. A go-ahead tactic in which changing conditions and demands for new services must be anticipated and policy and programs activated to meet the needs for new as well as expanded services.

Difficulties in providing needed services to rural areas can be remedied greatly when there is greater consensus by the citizenry on the nature of the problems and ways to meet the need for services.

A factor that has held back progress of social services in rural areas as much as any one thing is lack of understanding of the need and availability of services. Proper communication between the sources of services and the receiver in the rural areas is lacking. Although all factors related to social problems in rural areas will not be considered, some attention is being given to communications at this time.

Communicating Social Services Needs to the Rural Disadvantaged

Poor people in rural areas have different values from the majority of U.S. societies. This is mainly because they have low incomes and are socially deprived and partly because they know little but poverty. In this situation, they form a subculture of their own. This subculture in the U.S. shares the values of individualism, traditionalism, familistic orientation, fatalism and emphasis on person-centered relationships. Because of these values and other factors, communicating with the disadvantaged is difficult and complicated.

Recognizing that there is a growing communications gap between the advantaged and the disadvantaged in the nation, the National Academy of Science held

a workshop on Communications for Change with Rural disadvantaged (1972). Some facts stemming from this Workshop will help to better understand the art of communicating with the rural poor.

In a general summary, it was pointed out that communications for change with rural disadvantaged is complex. One must know what it is that he wishes to communicate which requires knowledge of the needs of the disadvantaged and the changes that are to be sought. One must formulate messages in a way that can be understood and accepted by the audience which requires a knowledge of the subculture, language, information level, and prejudices of the disadvantaged. Since change requires goals, questions related to goal formation were appropriate: Who should be involved in goal formation? Who can set goals for another? Can an agency or individual be set up with legislatively designed goals that will correspond to those actually held by the disadvantaged? Are the disadvantaged receptive to help in analyzing and formulating new goals for themselves? How well have the goals of advantaged members of the society been formulated, and if formulated, are they compatable with goal formation and goal attainment of the disadvantaged?

In discussing goals and in consideration of the questions, some pertinent facts emerged:

1. There is need to identify means by which various media and communication techniques can be employed to expand and improve the life style of the poor and disadvantaged and improve the mutual understanding between the poor and the non-poor.

2. To understand and work with goal formation is more important than merely listing goals and devising programs to reach them.

3. A major obstacle in communicating with the rural disadvantaged resides with those who wish to communicate. When trying to communicate with the disadvantaged, we need first to examine our own perspective and eliminate paternalism. Every man has his own integrity and dignity and it is that to which we must relate.

4. People should be thought of as "other advantaged" rather than disadvantaged. Their strong points should be recognized. Honesty in our relations should be emphasized. Effective communications requires the deliberate building of a new trust. Variants in cultural background require recognition.

5. Before attempting to communicate with the "other advantaged," we must communicate with ourselves and with our peers in society, to better understand our own motives, biases, suppositions and goals.

6. Five common faults in methods of communicating were listed:
   a. The people to be served by a program are seldom involved in planning it--or even in determining its needs.
   b. Too often projects are merely demonstrations. There is lack of continuity and follow-through, which lends to an air of insecurity.
   c. White racism is the root cuase of most problems of the poor.
   d. Schools must be made more responsive to the needs of the children in the community. Children must be given real opportunity and

encouragement to get the best education and must not be shunted into vocational or other non-college "tracks" because of race or home background.

e. Many more teachers from minority groups must be recruited as models of successful professional achievement.

7. Dynamic communication, which involves a true meeting of the minds, require each party to respect the other as he is, even though the purpose of the communication is to encourage the other person to change in some fundamental way.

8. Difficulties and breakdowns in communication must be sought as zealously as we seek evidence of progress and success. Differences in characteristic between the sender and receiver must be recognized. The tasks of the sender and receiver are reciprocal if true communications are to take place.

9. Communication in organizations usually begins at the top and filters down, with dimenishing effectiveness to the disadvantaged. Better correlation between programs and felt needs can develop by beginning at the bottom.

10. In general, mass media, especially information and education, do not reach the disadvantaged. The key to better communications lies in better use of face-to-face interaction, often involving paraprofessionals from the local level. Involvement of the disadvantaged themselves is essential if goal formation and plans for action are essential.

In summary, there will not be much change for the rural disadvantaged until someone talks to them, gets feed-back from them and uses enough redundancy to insure that problems will become clear to both sides.

If the concerned want change for the rural poor through communication, the following is recommended:

1. Take them as they are.

2. Respect them as they are.

3. Do not expect that there will be immediate understanding, expect "noise".

4. Listen to what they say carefully and with compassion; make use of the feed-back.

5. Have the message repeated for better understanding, use redundancy.

Although much more could be said about communication and the rural disadvantaged, enough has been given to reflect the important role that proper communication plays in meeting rural social services needs.

Considering the situation and conditions regarding need for rural social services in rural areas in the nation and those especially in Northwest Tennessee, a special professional worker is needed. It is the desire of The University of Tennessee at Martin to produce such a worker through its undergraduate Rural Social Services program.

REFERENCES

Ginsberg, Leon H.

1973 "Planning and delivery of services in rural areas," A Symposium: Planning and Delivery of Social Services in Rural America, University of Wisconsin--Extension.

National Academy of Science

1972 Workshop: Communication for Change with the Rural Disadvantaged. Washington.

1971 Workshop: The Quality of Rural Living. Washington.

National Association of Social Workers

1971 Encyclopedia of Social Work. Pp. 1138-1144.

Rogers, Everette M., and Rabel J. Burdge

1972 Social Change in Rural Societies, 2nd edition. Appleton-Century-Crofts. Pp. 376 431.

Taylor, Lee, and Arthur R. Jones, Jr.

1964 Rural Life and Urban Society. Oxford University Press. Pp. 49-67.

U.S. De[illegible]tment of Agriculture

1971 Year Book of Agriculture, A Good Life for More People. Pp. 146-158.

Williams, Stanley B.

1972 The Philosophy and Intent of The University of Tennessee at Martin' Rural Social Services Program (paper). The University of Tennessee at Martin.

FIELD EXPERIENCE IN RURAL AREAS

Nellie N. Reid[a]

Although this paper will be concerned chiefly with rural areas, there are certain factors in undergraduate field experience that are common to both rural and urban areas. Dr. Matson, in her document[1] on field experience, defined it as seeking to help the students:

1. gain firsthand knowledge and greater understanding of the network of social welfare services in the community in terms of their operation, their contribution to maintenance and enhancement of social functioning, and the community forces which affect their organization and operation

2. gain an appreciation of the impact upon individuals, families, and communities of such problems as delinquency, poor housing, family breakdown, and mental illness

3. integrate and apply knowledge, theory, and understanding derived from foundation courses and the content areas included in the social welfare concentration

4. develop some of the techniques and skills common to practice in the social welfare field, such as observation, data collection and organization, interviewing, reporting and evaluating impressions (both in written and oral form), and carrying responsibility for maintaining time-and depth-limited relationships with agency personnel and clientele

5. become aware of and analyze his own value orientations and his feelings about people and the problems which they bring to social agencies.

Colleges and universities in rural and urban areas have been seeking field experiences that will gain these ends. In a survey[2] of undergraduate programs, Sherman Merle reported that of the 232 programs on which he had data, 188 institutions (81 percent)made field experience available. Furthermore,

---

[1] Matson, Margaret, Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare. (Council on Social Work Education, 1967.)

[2] Merle, Sherman, Survey of Undergraduate Programs in Social Welfare. (Council on Social Work Education, 1967.)

[a] This paper is reprinted from and based on a presentation made by Professor Reid, who was on the faculty of the School of Social Work, Western Michigan at the time.

p. 75 blank

when he examined the kinds of activities and responsibilities usually carried by undergraduate students in their field experience, he found the largest group reporting that students had responsibility for service activities with clients or groups, and the second largest group had students placed in direct contact with clients, but without responsibility for service activities.

For those of us whose university or college is located in a rural area, it is necessary to have some understanding of the rural social welfare structure. Social services are organized in rural America quite differently from the ideal social welfare model-there are few agencies and even fewer professional social workers, although the problems are there. There is rarely, by strict definition, a social welfare community in which students can observe the interlocking character of social agencies. It becomes necessary then for the rural social worker to know how to create and use social services that are not, in the traditional sense, a part of the social agency structure. Dr. Leon Ginsberg, in a paper on "Education for Social Work in Rural Settings," presented at the annual program meeting of the Council on Social Work Education in January, 1969, spoke of the need for rural social workers to know how to identify the hidden structure of social service, to have tolerance, to assess its strength, and to help improve it rather than disregard it because it is non-professional. Another aspect of the rural social welfare structure is its relationship to power of institutions in small communities. Murray Ross[3] has written about communities in which the Rotary Club is as powerful as the local government.

These are only a few examples of the rural social welfare structure that may be significant. Perhaps one that should be emphasized is the necessity for the social work educator to be sensitive to the special problems and characteristics of minority groups. Some of the faculty who attended workshops at the annual meeting of the Council on Social Work Education, January, 1969, stated that they were involved in programs which offer social welfare content, but were finding it difficult to initiate field experience because local agencies would not accept their students. They wondered how they might break through a barrier such as one that black students might encounter in dealing with agencies controlled by whites. Some made suggestions for ways to break into the existing power structure, while others proposed that new sources be sought in areas previously not considered appropriate for placement. This two-pronged approach might be called "persistence and pragmatism."

---

[3]Ross, Murray, Case Histories in Community Organization. (New York: Harper and Row, 1958.)

It is my understanding that the purpose of this part of our workshop is to explore the types of field experience programs in rural areas that could be applied to our own college or university. Each university has its own structure that to some extent defines the use of field experience. All we can do here is to think of various kinds of field experience and hope that some--surely not all--may apply to our own unique settings.

Field experience placements may be divided into traditional and non-traditional. By traditional, I mean the placement of students where their learning experience will be directly under social agency supervision. By non-traditional, I am referring to field experience settings outside the usual social agency structure. If we go along with my thinking that we will have fewer traditional agencies in rural areas, we will need to spend more time looking at the second area.

Under the traditional category, we can plan on having a county welfare department, and there may also be an American Red Cross chapter, a health department, a county extension service, and some kind of a community action program. In the non-traditional area we cannot be as explicit. We may have special problems that are peculiar to the area, or at least of greater depth than in other localities. For example, my school is situated in an area immediately adjoining a fruit belt that employs one of the largest groups of migrant workers (mostly Mexican-American) in the country. Certain religious groups, university research teams, and the State Department of Education have worked in one way or another with this group. It is now possible for us to place our undergraduate students for a block summer field experience under the supervision of the school social worker. The students work in the family camps located on the farms, with the families as a whole--mostly at night since they work except on rainy days--and in the centers organized for children. Last summer we picked up the children along the road and took them to the centers. They ranged from three days old to 12 years old.

About 2,000 migrant workers have now settled in Michigan and plan to become permanent residents. Their problems of adjustment to a less mobile life, their language difficulties, their health and education problems are such that we are planning with the State Department of Education to begin to locate these families and find out more about them.

We also have about 30 miles south of us a group of Potowatammi Indians who are permanent residents of the community, but who are socially isolated from the mainstream of community life. Some of this isolation, we are sure, is by choice, but some is by community design. This is another example of local situations which can be used for summer block field experience. I would emphasize here that the use of faculty planning time and supervision is vitally necessary to the success of such a program.

It is possible that in your communities you might explore what is being done by church, civic and other organizations for such groups as the educationally and culturally disadvantaged, the aged, the ill, the physically and emotionally handicapped, minority groups, or those living in poverty. The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, in a publication entitled The People Left Behind, estimated that 40 percent of the poor live in rural America. We are so aware of our city ghettos that we forget the rural poor. Much of this poverty may not be evident to many persons in the community. But if you have local groups who have shown interest or who have

started service programs, it is possible that students could lend help and support by working with them.

A seminar on campus or in the field once a week, carefully planned as a learning process by faculty members, can help students integrate their experiences in the field with social work theory. The student might also be helped to see that a way of helping the disadvantaged in rural areas is to assist them in articulating their positions and ultimately in assuming participants roles in the decision-making activities of their communities.

These examples are only brief descriptions of what is being done, and what can be done. Each of us will need to explore what is unique in our setting and seek innovative means for field experiences.

Curriculum Content

The Task Force clearly recognized the need for special input to prepare individuals for practice in rural settings. Many of them attempted to include such inputs in all courses and field insturction; when this is done, it is often difficult to identify the special inputs.

In order to provide our readers some examples of curriculum and instruction on rural content, we are including two course syllabi, which illustrate curriculum content and instructional methodology. As suggested in the curriculum guidelines of the Council on Social Work Education, the way in which content is included: integrated throughout, separate courses, etc., is best determined by each program.

APPALACHIAN STUDIES PROGRAMS
GENERAL PHILOSOPHY, SYLLABUS AND READING LISTS

Helen Matthews Lewis, Ph. D.
Wise, Virginia

General Philosophy:

An Appalachian Studies Program seems most appropriate for a school located in the southern Appalachians to provide knowledge and understanding of the poverty, resources, and the social and political factors behind Appalachia's problems.

The program including the education process as well as the content of the curricula should be related to the needs of the areas. There are deep and serious problems in Appalachia due to outside ownership of resources and a century of exploitation of the area's resources (land and people). This exploitation has left the area and its people poor and powerless, and social institutions, including the schools, have tended to preserve the status quo or ignore the situation. A school of social work which would serve the needs of the area must not reinforce the system which oppresses the area, but must educate for creative change.

The general philosophy and approach of the Appalachian Studies Program should be one which helps students develop a knowledge, pride, and appreciation of the area. Much education in the past has been missionary in style. Educators have defined the people in the region as "Backward," behind the mainstream, and have attempted, through education, to improve the natives, to motivate people to achievement, change values, break down isolation, and bring the area into the mainstream. An Appalachian Studies Program should deal with the causes of Appalachian problems, and not the consequences, and must be different from the past. The education process must provide a true understanding of the history and exploitation of the area and a commitment to creative change. Education must be directed to changing the system by educating change agents and the resources of the colleges must be used constructively to attack real problems of the area.

In order to carry out this mission, curricula would be designed to provide students with knowledge, skills, and understanding to help solve problems. This will involve both technical skills and information to meet such needs as health care, legal advocacy, community development, and tools to analyze the social and economic situation.

Education should not be designed to "push" the student out of the area, to convince them of inferiority and encourage them to avoid or ignore problems, which has been the pattern in the past. Most of the area colleges have tended to define the area and students as inferior and the schools

p. 81 blank

have encouraged lack of involvement by providing irrevelant education or only skills enough to enter and adjust to the system.

The students need to develop a sense of identity and sensitivity to area problems, and a commitment to development and change in the area. This does not mean isolation, however. Institutions should provide many good cross-cultural experiences for students to enable them to compare Appalachian experiences and values with other cultures, including urban America. The purpose, however, should be to understand, appreciate and reaffirm the values of Appalachian culture, not change people to fit national norms or to give up their own culture.

College structures should change from authoritarian bureaucratic structures to democratic ones. The present form of colleges and universities reflects the corporate structure, which is not conducive to learning. It has bureaucratic hierarchical gradations of power and status among overseers, administrators, professors, students, secretaries, and manual workers. Administrative organizations need to be reorganized into more democratic forms so that students can learn to act to control their own lives, make important decisions, not to be controlled.

Admissions must be more open and programs initiated to assist in development of local community leadership and to provide the kinds of skills of communication, analysis, and techniques needed for people not only to fill roles in existing structures, but provide them with the ability to change those structures and to develop alternative structures to welfare, economic development, health, and education.

If one is to learn about the area, teaching methods need to be reevaluated. Present systems are too restrictive and limiting. Most learning happens casually, coming from friendships, love, watching TV, reading, encounters, examples of peers, apprenticeships, initiation ceremonies, and not from submission to an obligatory curriculum or a certified instructor.

The area, itself, should become a learning laboratory and students should see the area as a learning environment.

Learning experiences and learning exchanges require different kinds of arrangements to help students gain access to any educational resources which may help him learn and develop necessary skills. Things must be made more accessible such as libraries, museums, theaters, city ghettos, mountain hollows, coal mines, computer centers, farms, etc. Instead of removing things from life by making the "educational" such as the textbook, the microscope, the map, things from life must be seen as educational tools.

The general environment must be made accessible and traditional teaching instruments must be generally available for learning.

The concept of teachers must also be enlarged. Skills should be taught by models, or people who know, who are competent and they may be welfare mothers, coal miners, or bankers. Teachers of skills need not be in the profession. Administrators and teachers should concentrate primarily on providing access to resources. Education must eliminate the "banking" concept of education in which the student is a depository, a receptacle that receives, memorizes, repeats, and files and stores.

Instead of a "banking" type of education, education must be a "problem-solving" one, not a transferral of information, but a dialogue in which students and teachers are jointly responsible and critical co-investigators together. It bases itself on creativity and stimulates true reflection and action upon reality. This is true liberal arts education which can "liberate" Appalachians.

SYLLABUS

SEMINAR IN APPALACHIAN PROBLEMS

The course includes the study of the history and culture of the Southern Appalachians and the social and economic problems of the area. The course utilizes speakers, films, field trips, and discussions dealing with the Appalachian heritage: History, language, religions, crafts, music, and the economic and political changes which have occurred in the area. Special problem areas such as health, education, mine safety, welfare and environmental problems will be discussed. The course is designed as a general overview of Appalachian studies to give an appreciation of the richness of the Appalachian heritage and a fuller understanding of the social and economic changes in the area. The analysis of environmental, social, and economic problems should provide a greater awareness of area problems. An outline of topics covered during the usual semester follows. The Seminar remains flexible enough to incorporate current happenings in the area such as conferences, hearings on legislation, available speakers, music festivals, or crises such as mining accidents, floods, or labor strikes.

OUTLINE

I. ORIENTATION TO APPALACHIAN STUDIES

1. History and Culture of Southern Appalachia

   a. Delineation of Region
   b. Early Settlements and History of the Region
   c. Indian Influence on Mountain Culture
   d. Discovery of coal and the impact of coal mining on traditional mountain culture.
   e. Special characteristics of Central Appalachia

2. Physical Environment of the Area

   a. Geology and Geography of the Region
   b. Flora and Fauna
   c. Biology and Ecology of the Region
   d Relation of physical environment to social and economical development

3. Language and arts in Appalachia

   a. Language and the oral tradition
   b. Folklore and literature
   c. Arts and Crafts--new developments in the area

4. Mountain Music

   a. Traditional English Ballads
   b. Mountain and Country music
   c. Protest Songs, Mining, Union, and Recent Songs
   d. Music today in the Mountains

5. Religion

   a. History of churches; Primitive Baptist, etc.
   b. "Coal Camp" Religion
   c. Town and County Churches
   d. Religion and social change in the mountains

6. Economic Development in the Region

   a. Boom and Bust in the Coal Industry
   b. "War on Poverty" and Federal and State Programs
   c. Coal Mine Health and Safety Act, 1969
   d. "Energy Crisis," TVA, and Strip Mining

7. Population and Migration in the Region

   a. Early Growth and Ecological Changes
   b. Population shifts within the region
   c. Change in Black and Foreign-born population
   d. Mechanization of mining and population loss

8. Communities and Family Life

   a. Comparitive communities (ridges, hollers, valleys, camps)
   b. History of coal communities
   c. Foreign-born and Blacks in area coal camps
   d. The Miner and His Family - Working with danger, health and safety
   e. Rural farm and town families

9. The Black Appalachians

   a. History of the blacks in Appalachia
   b. Employment, segregation and migration
   c. Special problems of blacks today

10. Appalachian Health and Welfare Problems

   a. Development of Health and Welfare Programs in the mountains
   b. Appalachian Regional Hospitals (History and change)
   c. U.M.W.A. Health and Welfare
   d. Welfare Programs and Welfare Rights
   e. Social Security and Black Lung
   f. Alternatives to current programs

11. Appalachian Education

   a. History of Schools in the region
   b. Educational Problems and Needs

12. Politics in the Region

   a. History of Political development
   b. The "Fighting 9th District" (Party Politics)
   c. The Federal Government in Appalachia
   d. Regional Government
   e. Taxation and the Coal Industry

13. Social Movements in the Region

    a. Early Unionization and recent reform movements
    b. Appalachian volunteers and VISTA Programs
    c. Black Lung Movement
    d. Anti-strip mining movements
    e. Poor people's movements and Welfare Rights

14. Community Development Programs

    a. ARC: Appalachia's Bureau of Indian Affairs
    b. Regional Development Programs
    c. Community Action Programs
    d. Pilot and experimental health and education programs
    e. Alternatives for communities
    f. Prognosis for the future.

READING LIST

Here are some books for use in this course. The People's Appalachia issue on Appalachian Studies has some extensive reading lists. Out of all this, good reading material on the issues and projects can be gleaned.

*Harlan Miners Speak, Theodore Dreiser, Harcourt, New York, NY 1932

*Night Comes to the Cumberlands, Harry Caudill, Little, Brown & Co., 1962

An Appalachian Reader, Richard Drake, Berea College, Berea, Kentucky, 1970

*Hard Hitting Songs for Hard-Hit People, Lomax, Guthrie, Seeger, Oak Publishing Company, New York, NY 1967

*The Southern Highlanders, Horace Kephart, MacMillan, 1963

Southern Highlander and His Homeland, John C. Campbell, Univ of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky, 1921

Labor and Coal, Ann Rochester, New York International Publishers, 1931

*The Autobiography of Mother Jones, Mary F. Parton, Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, Illinois, 1925

*Available from the Council of the Southern Mountains, Inc., C.P.O. 2307, Berea, Kentucky 40403

Death in the Dark, James Taylor Adams, Adams-Millins Press, 1941

*Bloodletting in Appalachia, Howard B. Lee, Morgantown, West Virginia: West Virginia University Press, 1966.

*Appalachia's Problems--People Alternatives, an Introductory Social Science Reader, People's Appalachia Research Collective, Morgantown, W. Virginia 1970

*Struggle in the Coal Fields, Fred Mooney, 1967

*John L. Lewis, Saul Alinsky

*Available from the Council of the Southern Mountains, Inc., C.P.O. 2307, Berea, Kentucky 40403

A PROPOSED COURSE IN RURAL HUMAN SERVICES

Mrs. Linda Stiles, Assistant Professor
University of Montevello, Montevallo, Ala.

I. COURSE DESCRIPTION:

Emphasis on the delivery of human services in the rural environment focusing on resources and skills needed by the helping professionals to be more effective in working with individuals, agencies and communities.

II. TEXTBOOKS:

Dunbar, Tony. Our Land Too. Publisher: Vintage Books

Caudill, Harry M. Night Comes to The Cumberlands
Publisher: Little, Brown and Company

Social Casework. March, 1970

As there is no real textbook in this area, other articles will be used.

III. COURSE RATIONALE:

"...the rural social worker must frequently serve as an educator, consultant, and guide. He must have some expertise in community organization and social policy development. He must also learn to work within the norms of the rural community without compromising basic social work goals.

It is concluded that social workers in rural areas need special capacities for brief, infrequent relationships with both clients and lay leadership because their work is often done on a regional basis. Typically, the rural social worker must be in possession of special skills in administration since the typical rural social worker functions as an executive or staff member of a one or two-person agency."*

*"Education for Social Work in Rural Settings," Leon Ginsberg, Division of Social Work, West Virginia University, Session 32, 1969. Council on Social Work Education, Cleveland, Ohio, ABSTRACTS OF PAPERS.

p. 89 blank

IV. COURSE OBJECTIVES

In view of the above statement the following course objectives are:

To develop:

1) An understanding of the development and scope of the social pathology and its effects on the people, culture, and social institutions of rural America.
2) Beginning skills in community analysis.

3) Expansion of skills in the effective use and development of self and other formal and informal resources within the rural environment.

4) Opportunities for anticipatory thinking and direct observation of the outcomes of various interventive behaviors and strategies for change in terms of the rural culture.

5) An identification with and committment toward working with this client population

V. ASSIGNMENTS

15% Test
15% Option:
1. In Class report of: small towns, rural religions, rural education, rural health problems, rural norms and values, rural migration, strip mining and black lung, or any other relevant topic of the student's choice after consultation with insturctor.
2. Oral Book Report of: How Let Us Praise Famous Men, The Doll Maker, and The Foxfire Book or other relevant books.

15% Mid-Term Test
30% Term Paper*
25% Take Home Final

*A term paper analyzing the county where the student lives (if major metropolis, an identifiable area should be used or a joint project with a student from a rural community). Terms of importance regarding information that a new social worker in that county would need to know. These will be considered confidential so real names, places and agencies may be used. Use all techniques gained from this course and others to gain accurate informati

Areas to be included should include the following:

1. Examination of the terrain and maps for physical barriers, extent of paved roads, sewer lines, railroads, bridges, etc.

2. Examination of census data for: age, race, income, number of rooms, ownership, indoor plumbing, electricity, occupation, education levels, etc.

3. The relevant history of the county including feuds, strikes, etc that still influence decision making.

4. Examination of newsmedia for patterns of the "good" guys and the "bad" guys, formal organization, jobs, housing, politics, etc

5. Crime and punishment systems. County or city facilities for apprehension, detention, trial, probation, etc. What happens to juveniles? Crime rates? Are they elected, appointed, civil service? What are the local biases? What kind of legal representation? For whom?

6. Medical system including doctors, hospitals, midwives, county health. Who accepts medicare or medicaid. Do any give free services or indigent care? Is family planning utilized? How are patients treated? Birth rates, death rates, etc., health department services.

7. School system, drop out rate, college rate, free lunches and how many and how are they dispersed? pupil-teacher ration, guidance counselors, use of building for other purposes, recreation, free breakfast, adult education programs, illiteracy rates, after school or during school social activities, power struggles, head start, average education level.

8. Voting patterns, how many registered, who votes, party membership, relevant battles, voting places, how ballots counted (machine or hand).

9. Churches - number, denomination, attendance, activities sponsored, degree of social welfare interest, helping money or programs, dominant religious beliefs, taboos, etc.

10. Other Social Welfare Organizations and Agencies--Who do they serve, funding, formal and informal policies, competition for clients, impact on community.

11. Housing--patterns, public, private, or rented; facilities; i.e., plumbing, electricity, indoor baths, value, construction; condition repair, light, air, heating, etc.

12. Employment--who are major employers, amount of wages, working conditions, skills required, migration patterns in or out, economic development

13. Other organizations such as Kiwanis, Klu Klux Klan, Country Club, Boy Scouts, etc--Who belongs, amount of influence, restrictions, etc.

14. Any other relevant information!

COURSE OUTLINE

TOPIC	CONTENT	READING
The Ecology of a Community Introduction	Definitions Where students are Assignments Study census data Lecture Film:"Poverty in Rural America"	
Life Styles	Film: "The Other Americans" Observation outline	Growing Up Poor
Community Analysis	Lecture Outline Study reports, maps	Studying Your Community How People Get Power
Mechanization & Manpower: The Obsolescence of People A. Economic History Cotton	Migration Tape Film: "The People Left Behind"or "Lay My Burden Down:	OLT pp. 1-30 MSM* pp 117-192 359-421
Coal	Film: "Rich Land, Poor People" or Wren Smith slides	Night Comes to the Cumberlands OLT** pp 117-133
B. Social Problems & Institutions in Rural America Health and Housing	Black Lung, Anemia Student reports	OLT pp 30-43 49-57 144-168
Education and Religion		MSM pp 578-618
Hunger	Film: "Hunger in America: Dr. Butterworth: Malnutrition Judy Brett: Food Stamps and Commodities	OLT pp 43-49 72-84
Power	Norms and Values Power Game Report: Small Town in Mass Society	OLT pp 66-72 173-185

TOPIC	CONTENT	READING
Race	Guest speakers Seth O'Korley-Rural Black Fred Bird - Rural White	OLT pp 57-65 173-185
Effect Individual & Family	Weller's Outline Cases Film: "The Best Damn Fiddler from Calabogie to Kaladar" Test	OLT pp 84-117 185-213
The Professional in a Rural Context: Superworker Short Term Treatment	Lecture Case Study Role Play	Helen Harris Perlman Articles on Reserve
Role Diversification	Generalist Game Consultation with professionals Advocacy	Ginsberg articles and Social Case-Work, March 1970
Existing Agencies as Resources	Guest: Nell Fulton	Term Papers
Agency Analysis	Lecture Client careers Nature of agencies Stated vs. Hidden goals	Modern Organizations
Future Directions	Guest speakers Local vs. Regional planning Dobbs-Regional Paul Yearer, Jr.-Local Federal intervention Creative social welfare	Take Home Final

* Coles, Robert Migrants, Sharecropper, Mountaineers

** Dunbar, Tony Our Land Too

BIBLIOGRAPHY

RURAL HUMAN SERVICES
Social Work 320

Advisory Commission on Inter-Governmental Relations Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth Washington 1968.

Agee, James. Let Us Now Praise Famous Men. Ballentine Books: New York.

Bird, Alan R. and John L. McCoy. White Americans in Rural Poverty. U.S. Department of Agr. Economic Research Service, Agricultural Eco. Report.#12419

Brown, Josephine Chapin. The Rural Community and Social Casework. Family Welfare Association of America: New York 1933.

Campbell, John C. The Southern Highlander and His Homeland. Russell Sage Foundation: New York. 1921.

Caudill, Harry M. Night Comes to the Cumberlands. Little, Brown & Co.: Boston, Massachusetts. 1962.

Charles, Searle F. Minister of Relief Syracuse University Press: New York. 1963

Coles, Robert. Migrants, Sharecroppers, Mountaineers. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, Massachusetts. 1971

Coles, Robert. Children of Crisis. Vol. I, II. Little, Brown and Col, Boston, Massachusetts, 1971.

Coles, Robert. The South Goes North. Little, Brown and Co., Boston, Massachusetts 1971

Elliott, (ed.). The Foxfire Book. Doubleday Publishing Company: New York.

Fetterman, John. Stinking Creek. E.P. Dutton: New York. 1967

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Essentials of Rural Welfare, and Approach to the Improvement of Rural Well-Being Washington, D.C. 1949.

Ford, Thomas T. (ed.) The Southern Appalachian Region. University of Kentucky Press: Lexington, Kentucky 1962.

Gazaway, Rena. The Longest Mile. Doubleday and Company: New York. 1969.

Ginsberg, L.H. Social Problems in Rural America, 96th Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare. 1969. John Wiley and Sons: NY

Ginsberg, Leon H. "Rural Social Work". Encyclopedia of Social Work. 16th Issue. Vol. 2, 1971. pp 1138-1144.

Hall, Edward T. The Silent Language. Fawcett Publishing Inc. Greenwich, Conn. 1959.

Hansen, Niles M. Rural Poverty and the Urban Crisis. Indiana University Press: Bloomington, Indiana. 1970

Harrington, Michael. The Other America. The Penquin Books: Baltimore, Md.

Hitch, Earle Vann. Rebuilding Rural America. New Designs for Community Life Harper Publishing: New York. 1959.

Johnson, Charles. Growing Up in the Black Belt: Negro Youth in the Rural South. Schocken Book Inc., New York. 1967.

Kahn, Si. How People Get Power: Organizing Oppressed Communities for Action McGraw-Hill: New York.

Landis, Benson Young. Rural Welfare Services. Columbia Univ. Press: NY 1949.

Moody, Anne. Coming of Age in Mississippi. Dell Publishing: New York 1969.

Nelson, Lowry. Rural Sociology: Its Origins and Growth in the United States University of Minneapolis Press: Minneapolis, Minnesota 1969

President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. The People Left Behind. Government Printing Office; Washington, D.C. 1965

Sanderson, Ezra Dwight. Rural Community Organization. John Wiley and Sons: New York. 1939

Seligman, Ben B. Permanent Poverty. Quadrangle Books: Chicago, Illinois 1968

U.S. Department of HEW Public Health Services. Mental Health in Appalachia Government Printing Office; Washington, D.C. 1965.

Weller, Jack. Yesterday's People. University of Kentucky Press: Lexington, Kentucky. 1966.

Youmans, E.G. (ed.) Older Rural Americans. University of Kentucky Press Lexington, Kentucky. 1967.

Alexander, Frank. "Religion in a Rural Community in The South" American Sociological Review. Vol. 1., April 1941.

Brown, James S. Harry K. Schwatz Weller and Joseph J. Managian. "Kentucky Mountain Migration and the Stem-Family in An American Variation on A Theme by LePlay," Rural Sociology, Vol. 28, March 1963.

Coles, Robert. "Appalachia: Hunger in the ;Hollows". The New Republic. November 1968.

Coles, Robert. "Life in Appalachia, The Case of Hugh McCaslin," Trans-Action. Vol. 5, June 1968. pp.23-33.

Coles, Robert. "God and Rural Poor," Psychology Today. January 1972. pp. 31-40.

Coles, Robert and Joseph Brenner. "American Youth in a Social Struggle: The Appalachian Volunteers" American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 38. pp 31-46.

Coles, Robert. "A Domain of Sorts: Mountain Children and Their Struggle for Mastery" Harpers. November 1971 pp 116-122.

Fetterman, John. "The People of Cumberland Gap" National Geographic. November 1971, Vol. 140. pp 591-620.

Franzen, Richard. "The House That Chid Built". Opportunity. Vol. 2, No. 4, ay 1972 (Published by O.E.O.) pp. 22-25.

Hale, Carl W. "Factors Inhibiting Appalachian Regional Development: West Virginia, A Case Study," The American Journal of Economics and Sociology Vol. 30, April 1972 pp 133-158.

Hunt, Diana. "Health Services to The Poor, A Survey of The Prevalence and Causes of Infant Mortality in The United States" Inquiry. Vol. 1, August 1969.

Kahn, Si. "New Strategies for Appalachia" New South. Vol 25, Summer 1970 pp 59-64.

Larson, Olaf F. and Ruth C. Young. "The Social Ecology of a Rural Community" Rural Sociology. Vol 35, p. 337.

Larson, Olaf F. "Income and Welfare of Rural People: Agricultural Research Significant to Public Policy, Public Welfare and Community Improvement" Rural Sociology. Vol. 30, 1965, p. 425.

Leamer, Lawrence. "Eccles No. 6: A West Virginia Coal Mine, Where the Job is a Privlege" Harper's December 1971. pp. 100-110.

Levine, Abraham S. "Yesterday's People and Tomorrow's Programs" Welfare in Review. Vol. 1 (4) July-August 1969, pp. 8-12.

Lowery, Ritchie P. "Who's Running This Town?" Trans-Action 3:32-34 November-December 1965.

Murphey, Betty "Community Action Broadcasting Gives Voice to The Poor" Opportunity pp. 10-11, March 1972.

Nanzandt, S. and Bosworth S. "Day Care Problems and Needs in Rural Areas" Public Welfare 26(3): 219-223, 1968

Nevin, David "These Murdered Old Mountains" Life Vol. 64, Jan 12, 1968, pp 54-67

Nelson, Hart M. and Stuart E. Storey "Personality Adjustment of Rural and Urban Youth: The Formation of a Rural Disadvantaged Subculture," Rural Sociology 34:52, March 1969

Peter, Emmett, Jr. "Keeping 'Em Down on The Farm" New Republic October 1968

Polansky, Norman A. "Child Neglect in a Rural Community" Social Casework, October 1968

Polansky, Norman A. "Powerlessness Among Rural Appalachian Youth" Rural Sociology Vol 34, pp 219-222, 1969

Schrag, Peter "The Forgotten American" Harper's Magazine Vol. 239, August 1969 pp 27-34

Schrag, Peter. "Appalachia: Again The Forgotten Land" Saturday Review January 27, 1968, p. 14

Segerberg, Jr., Osborn. "Power Corrupts" Esquire March 1972, pp 138-142,192-19

Simon, William and John H. Gagnon. "The Decline and Fall of the Small Town" Trans-Action 4:42-51. April 1967

Street, Paul "Community Action in an Appalachian County" Welfare in Review Vol 8, November, December 1970, pp 108

Street, Paul "Effects of An OEO Kindergarten on Appalachian Children" Welfare in Review. November, December 1971 pp 12-18

_____ "War on Rural Poverty" in Christian Century 82:731, June 1965

_____ "War on the Poor: OEO Grant for the California Rural Legal Assistance Program vetoed by State" Newsweek 77:18-19, January 1971.

Additional Reference Material and Resources on Rural Subjects*

Organizations

Agency for International Development
Dept. of State - Washington, D.C.

Division of International Activities
Social and Rehabilitation Services
U.S. Dept of Health, Ed. and Welfare
Washington, D.C.

Georgia Rural Development Center
Tifton, Georgia

Highlander Research and Education Center
Box 245A R.F. D. #3
New Market, Tennessee 37820

International Commission of Social Work Education
345 East 46th Street
New York, N.Y. 10017

Rural Community Assistance Corporation
(a consortium of 15 predominantly black land grant colleges)
805 Peachtree N.E.
Atlanta, Georgia

Southern Rural Action, Inc.
220 Sunset Ave N.W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30314

United Nations
Social Welfare Services Section
Social Development Division
New York, N.Y.

United States Department of Agriculture
also: State Departments of Agriculture
County Extension Agents
Extension Services of Colleges and Universities

*We are indebted to Judy Moss, graduate student at the Atlanta University School of Social Work, for assistance in the preparation of this material.

p. 101 blank

Publications and Articles

Beckford, George L. Persistent Poverty. New York: Oxford University Press, 1972.

Caudill, Harry M. Night Comes to the Cumberlands. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1963.

Cox, Fred M., et al (eds.) Strategies of Community Organization: A Book of Readings. Itasca, Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1970

Gordon, Barry R. and Rubenstein, Daniel I. West Virginia College of Graduate Studies. "The Socially Constructive Aspects of Outside Agents in Community Decision-Making in a Rural Area". August 1973.

Holmes, Horace C. No Pone Valley. The Agricultural Development Council, Inc., New York, 1967

Kozoll, Charles and Ulmer, Curtis. Developing Successful Community Assistance Programs. Prentice Hall, Inc. 1971

Potter, Jack ., Diaze, May N., Foster, George M. (eds.). Peasant Society-A Reader. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1967

Redfield, Robert, The Little Community Peasant Society and Culture, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1960

Rogers, Everett M. Social Change in Rural Society. New York: Appleton-Century, Crofts, Inc., 1960

Rogers, Everett M., and Burdge, Rabel J. Social Change in Rural Societies. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1972

Romage, James W. "A Basic Philosophy in Developing A Rural Mental Health Program". Public Welfare, Fall 1971.

Vidich, Arthur J., and Bensman, Joseph. Small Town in Mass Society. Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1968

Wigginton, Eliot (ed.) The Foxfire Book. Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1972

Special Reports

Annual Report of the Appalachian Regional Commission. Appalachian Regional Commission, 1666 Connecticut Ave, N.W., Washington, D.C.

President's Task Force on Rural Development. "A New Life for the Country," Appalachia, III, No. 7 (April 1970), 20-24.

Pinnock, T.J. "Rural Community Development - A Challenge for the 1890 Colleges," Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, March 1972

"Flight to the Naked City". Southern Rural Action, Inc., 220 Sunset Ave., N.W., Atlanta, Georgia

"The Changing Status of Southern Agriculture - A 20 Year Review." Tuskegee Institute Human Resources Development Center, February 1972

"Living in the Country", Southern Rural Action, Inc., 220 Sunset Ave, N.W. Atlanta, Georgia

92nd Congress, House of Representatives 12931, Public Law 92-419. "Rural Development Act of 1972". August 20, 1972